COMMUNITY AND VOCATIONAL CIVICS

HOWARD COPELAND HILL

Poster

Health

Beautiful Community

Happy Family

See page 494-495

State.

Location

Centers

Located -

Local

Local

Nation

State

Gerald Barnes 7/5 1/2

BEGIN—

BEGIN—

END

L. L.
X
S. B.

1. Primitive
2. frontier
3. rural
4. urban

TRUE

H. Y.
X
M. H.

W. B.
+
F. W.

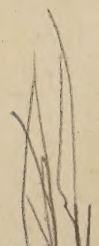
P. B.
X
B. R.

E. B. B.
+
V. M.

H. W.
X
S. B.

Red Cross

common law consists of general principles based upon decisions of judges.
statute law is a law passed by a legislative body and deals with specific details
constitutional law



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Linward Setherman
Trade 8

THE CAPITOL

Set amid grounds of unusual beauty, the national Capitol at Was' ngton is unsurpassed in grace and nobility by any public building in the w.rld. The towering dome, which can be seen for miles, is surmounted by a bronze Statue of Liberty.

Howard Copeland Hill

COMMUNITY AND VOCATIONAL CIVICS

BY

HOWARD COPELAND HILL

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GINN AND COMPANY

BOSTON · NEW YORK · CHICAGO · LONDON
ATLANTA · DALLAS · COLUMBUS · SAN FRANCISCO

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PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

828.5

Indiana 5,238,505.

The Athenæum Press
GINN AND COMPANY · PROPRIETORS · BOSTON · U.S.A.

PREFACE

Scope and Viewpoint

The last twenty-five years have witnessed a great change in the prevailing conception of citizenship and citizenship training. Looked upon formerly as limited to the study of constitutions and governmental machinery, civics is now regarded as including also governmental functions and needs, and as embracing, in addition, such relationships and problems as appear in everyday living. Instead of viewing citizenship as restricted to adults, educators now recognize with truer vision that boys and girls as well as men and women are "citizens of the United States and of the state wherein they reside" and that citizenship training, if effective, must provide for present problems as well as for the needs of future years.

A Classroom Product

On such conceptions rests the present book. It is the fruitage of twenty years of experience in teaching boys and girls the fine art of living together. It embodies such elements and principles of government, economics, and sociology as have been found of service in making intelligible to pupils the social world in which we live. From beginning to end it lays chief stress on personal needs and obligations. In the truest sense of the term the volume is a product of the classroom.

Contents and Organization

The book falls into five parts, each divided into a number of teaching units. The units in turn are made up of several elements, or sections, which may be utilized in making

varied assignments to meet different levels of attainment. In Part One, which is devoted to group life, are treated the chief features of human society as they appear in the home, the school, the church, the local community, the nation, and the world. Part Two, which deals with community welfare, is focussed upon such problems as health, protection, recreation, civic planning, and the care of the handicapped. In Part Three government is discussed as an institution engaged in meeting human needs,— making law, enforcing legislation, establishing justice. Part Four presents in a concrete way the simple, but fundamental, economic principles that underlie all occupations. In Part Five are considered the basic vocations which enter into modern business and industry. Viewed as a whole, the first three parts of the volume comprise what is usually called community civics and the last two parts what is generally known as vocational civics, or occupations.

Teaching Aids

The volume is supplied with teaching aids designed to vitalize civics and to provide training *in* citizenship and not merely *for* citizenship. Pictures, maps, and graphs have been selected for their interpretative and illustrative value rather than for mere decorative purposes. On page vi appears a classroom library of twelve titles to which reference is made repeatedly throughout the volume. With each chapter is given, in addition, a list of books recommended for voluntary reading and chosen to illuminate and humanize the unit embodied in the chapter. Suggestive questions and problems for class discussion form a part of every section. Finally, at the end of each chapter are proposed activities and projects for individual pupils and for committees of pupils. All problems, questions, and projects are, of course, merely suggestive; the wise teacher will use, omit, or modify them, as best fits the needs of the class.

Acknowledgments

Without the aid of others this book could not have been written. I am indebted, first of all, to the boys and girls in my classes whose comments and criticisms have been most helpful in selecting and shaping the material in the volume. I am also under obligation to fellow teachers who have given me the benefit of their counsel and experience in teaching citizenship in different parts of the country. For permission to quote passages from their copyrighted publications my thanks are due to Bobbs-Merrill Company; Charles Scribner's Sons; Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc., for a stanza from *Songs of a Work-a-Day World* by Berton Braley (copyright, 1915); and A. P. Watt and Son and Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc., for a stanza by Rudyard Kipling. For copyrighted illustrations I am indebted to Eugene J. Hall, W. S. Jordan, Frank Colby, C. F. Talman, F. Zerbe, Stone and Webster, Burke and Koretke, John T. McCutcheon, Knox C. Hill, Mrs. Ulysses E. Mayhew, Samuel S. Wyer, the Pilgrim Press for an illustration from "The Return of the Prodigal" by Levinger, and in particular to Underwood & Underwood of Chicago.

For suggestions concerning both the content and organization of Parts Four and Five I am grateful to Principal Robert C. Woellner of the University of Chicago High School. I have also profited from the helpful comments made in connection with the reading of the proof by Dr. Charles A. Coulomb, District Superintendent of Schools in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Especially heavy is my indebtedness to Professor R. L. Lyman, The University of Chicago, for discriminating and detailed criticism growing out of a careful reading of the entire manuscript.

HOWARD C. HILL

Chicago, Illinois

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The following books, which are referred to repeatedly throughout this volume, provide admirable supplementary material. If possible, at least one copy of each book should be available for the use of pupils. The entire set, with the exception of the last title, can be purchased for less than fourteen dollars.

1. *Heroes of Progress*, by Eva M. Tappan. Houghton.
2. *Careers of Danger and Daring*, by Cleveland Moffett. Century.
3. *America's Message*, edited by Will C. Wood, Alice C. Cooper, and Frederick A. Rice. Ginn.
4. *In Our Times*, edited by Albert B. Hart. Macmillan.
5. *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, edited by Leon C. Marshall. Macmillan.
6. *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, by William A. Du Puy. Stokes.
7. *Modern Great Americans*, by Frederick H. Law. Century.
8. *The Worker and his Work*, by Stella S. Center. Lippincott.
9. *Fiber and Finish*, by Eugene E. Dodd. Ginn.
10. *The American Government*, by Frederic J. Haskin. Lippincott.
11. *Readings in Community Life*, edited by Howard C. Hill. Ginn.
12. *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*. 10 vols. F. E. Compton & Company.

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COMMUNITY AND VOCATIONAL CIVICS

PART ONE. GROUP LIFE

TEAMWORK

The hauler, the feeder, and the operator of the caterpillar tractor are all necessary to fill the huge silo with winter food for the sheep and cattle. Because these men work together on the farm, people in the city have better milk to drink and better meat to eat.

CHAPTER I

HOW WE LIVE TOGETHER

Nothing useless is, or low:
Each thing in its place is best.

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW

SECTION I. HOW WE DEPEND ON ONE ANOTHER

Voyaging alone around the world. In the spring of 1895 Captain Joshua Slocum sailed from Boston on the sloop *Spray*, bound on a voyage alone around the world. His little vessel had been built largely by his own hands, and although it measured less than thirty-seven feet in length and fifteen feet in width he had every confidence in its seagoing qualities. His trust was not misplaced, for, as the voyage proceeded, the *Spray* withstood the hardest kind of pounding from both sea and tempest.

Captain Slocum sailed at first across the Atlantic, intending to go through the Mediterranean and the Suez Canal, and thence eastward. Learning at Gibraltar of pirates in the Mediterranean, he changed his plans, recrossed the Atlantic, and headed for the Strait of Magellan. Here he ran into fierce gales and encountered treacherous savages; but in spite of such dangers he forced his way through the perilous Strait, plunged into the Pacific, and steered for far-away Australia.

For weeks and months Slocum did not see a single ship nor receive aid from a single human being. He cooked his own meals, depending for variety upon the flying fish which often fell on deck, and upon occasional turtles caught with a harpoon. When the gales near Cape Horn damaged the

Spray, he repaired the vessel himself, installing new ropes, replacing broken spars, and mending rents in the sails.

Forced in stormy seas to act as steersman, Captain Slocum stood at the helm on one occasion for thirty hours at a stretch. But such experiences were unusual. As a rule he was able to set the sails, lash the wheel, and then read, write, work, or rest, as he pleased. While he slept, the helm, tied to the stanchion, held the vessel to its course.

THE JOURNEY OF THE *SPRAY*

Captain Slocum's cruise over this route lasted more than three years and covered over forty-six thousand miles. The voyage required courage and endurance equal to that shown by Cook or Magellan.

From Australia Captain Slocum headed for South Africa, rounded the Cape of Good Hope without mishap, made his way across the southern Atlantic, steered north to New England, and, after a cruise of over forty-six thousand miles, returned to the land from which he had sailed more than three years before. Single-handed he had voyaged round the world!

How Captain Slocum depended on others. In spite of his remarkable feat Captain Slocum was not as independent as he seems to have been. He built the *Spray* with his own

hands, it is true; but he had to employ a neighboring farmer to haul the timber to the shipyard. He paid for the supplies with which he outfitted his little vessel; but he did not raise the potatoes, nor produce the oil, nor bake the crackers, nor make the spyglass that went into the cargo. Unassisted he guided the *Spray* through both calm and storm; but the skill with which he managed his frail craft came from a lifetime of instruction and experience on fishing schooners, ocean freighters, and full-rigged merchant ships. Repeatedly during the voyage he depended on pilots to guide him into harbors, on port authorities to refit his vessel with new sails and new rigging, on merchants to furnish him with fresh provisions, and upon friends and acquaintances to supply him with the books and magazines with which he whiled away long, unoccupied hours at sea.

THE *SPRAY*

Most of us would fear to venture even upon a rough lake in this frail craft, but Captain Slocum sailed around the world in it, alone and undaunted.

Moreover, in spite of the thrills of the cruise Captain Slocum missed human companionship. To beguile the loneliness, he would call out at times to an imaginary shipmate, "Eight bells!" "How does she head there?" "Is she

on her course?" Occasionally he would shout to the sea gulls and penguins, "Hurrah for the *Spray*!" At times he even held long talks with the man in the moon. In his solitude he found companionship in books, which, he says, "were always my friends." Like everyone else, Captain Slocum depended on others.

Our dependence on others. Few of us are as independent as Captain Slocum. Unlike him, we usually look to others to cook our food, serve our meals, mend our clothes, build our houses, and protect us from harm. Most of us would perish in a short time, or would at least find existence very unpleasant, if we were suddenly forced to depend entirely on ourselves for food, clothing, shelter, protection, and recreation.

How many of you, for example, usually prepare your own breakfast? or lunch? or dinner? And if you do, how many of you sowed and harvested the wheat and ground the flour and baked the bread you used for toast? How many of you fed and milked the cows which supplied the milk and butter? How many of you made your own suits, dresses, or shoes, or produced the cotton, wool, or leather of which they are composed?

Does not your dependency on others appear even in your play? If you like football, tennis, or hockey; if you are fond of the circus or theater; if you enjoy chess, checkers, or dancing, — whatever your favorite game or amusement may be, can you enjoy it without the help of others?

Fifty years ago there lived in Ireland a man named Captain Boycott, a land agent for a wealthy Englishman. In collecting the rents Boycott used rough methods. When the tenants were unable or unwilling to pay, he drove them off their little farms, leaving them at times homeless and destitute by the roadside. Because of his harshness and cruelty, Boycott was bitterly hated by all the country folk. Finally, servants refused to work for him; shopkeepers would not deal with him; passers-by would not speak to him; the tenants began to desert the land; and people for

miles around would have nothing to do with him or his family. Shunned by everyone, Boycott was forced at last to leave the country, a ruined and embittered man. As an individual he found himself wretched and helpless when others refused to assist him or associate with him in any way.

A TEAM IN ACTION

Will he make the basket? Tense muscles and nerves await the result, with every boy alert for the next play. Basket ball, like all sports requiring teamwork, calls for each man in his place, doing his best, all the time.

All through life we find that we too are dependent on other people. To our parents we owe our food, clothing, and shelter. To our ancestors we owe many of our traits and characteristics. To people of past ages we owe much of our art, literature, religion, and science. If we are so indebted, can we do anything to pay the obligation? Or must we, like parasites, live wholly on others?

Dependence of others on us. Fortunately no one person is so important as all other persons combined. As Abraham

Lincoln said, "Everybody knows more than anybody." An individual is ordinarily of less consequence than a group of individuals. The community could exist without the help of any one of its members.

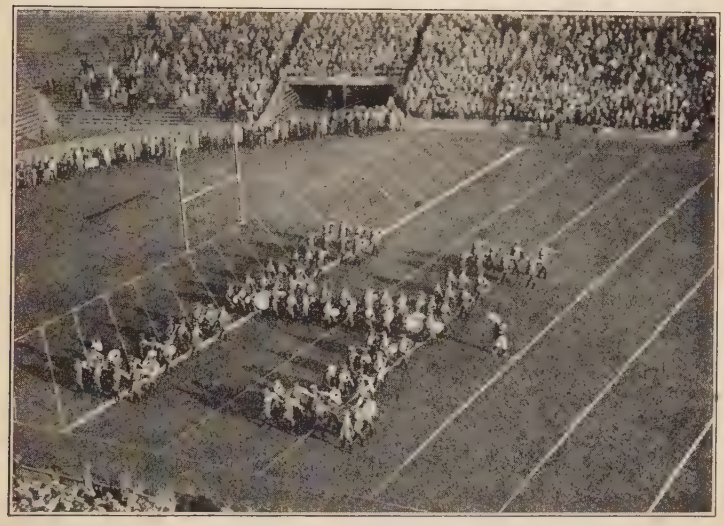
But it is equally true that each person has his work to do, his part to play. If he neglects his part or fails in his task, the entire group depending on him suffers. The pupil who fails in his work, who recites so that he cannot be heard, who enters the room late, or who is irregular in attendance, injures the entire class. And the pupil who fails in his task hurts not only himself and his family, but also the whole community.

Illustrations of the dependence of a group on a single individual occur constantly. The muffing of a fly ball by a member of the Washington baseball team once proved the turning point in the decisive game of the World's Series. On one occasion the New York Giants lost a world pennant because one of their players, in circling the bases, failed to touch second. Several years ago a blunder by the quarterback cost the University of Michigan the Western football championship. The courage of a drummer boy once saved Napoleon from military disaster, and the nod of a peasant's head sent him to defeat at Waterloo.

In the world of work we also find examples of the way society depends on the individual and on groups of individuals. Into the making of shoes more than one hundred different processes enter. If the man in charge of any one process fails to do his part, the whole factory will soon be idle, at least for a time.

Not only do the men in the shop depend on each other, but they depend also on other men outside the shop and far from it. They depend on the cattleman for leather, on the farmer for flax, on the mill operator for thread, and on the miner, ironworker, and factory employee for coal, nails, and machinery. They depend on the transporter to bring together the materials used in making shoes, on the investor

for money to build and equip the factory, and on government officials for the protection necessary to carry on the industry in safety. Most of all they depend on the consumer to buy the shoes when placed upon the market. Let any of the men or groups of men fail in their work, and the whole enterprise is hindered or compelled to stop.



THE BAND TAKES THE FIELD

When the Indiana University band formed the letter *H* for Harvard, every member had to find his exact place, march in step, and at the same time play his instrument in perfect unison. Had one man failed in his part, the whole performance would have been imperfect.

Is this true with society in general? Yes; for the community as a whole always suffers when any person fails in his task. To be sure, one member of an athletic team may play poorly and the team yet win; one workman may blunder and the factory escape serious loss; nevertheless the fact remains that the failure of any person is always harmful and sometimes fatal to the group.

In short, we all depend on one another. The pupil depends on the teacher, and the teacher depends on the pupil;

the mechanic depends on the farmer, and the farmer depends on the mechanic. Whenever any man "who can till a field, or work a forge, or build a machine, or organize a crew of laborers, or increase knowledge, or interpret law, or lead an army, or do anything which can be turned to the service of the many" fails to use his ability, the community as a whole suffers. The most important fact in life, as well as the most common, is our dependence upon one another.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. In his solitary flight from New York to Paris, was Colonel Lindbergh dependent on others? Explain.

2. Name five persons who helped you in any way today; name five whom you helped.

3. One of the rules of good health is "Breathe deeply and freely of pure air." Can you obey this rule without the aid of others? Explain.

4. Give an example showing how you depend on the past. Mention three ways in which the people of the future depend on us.

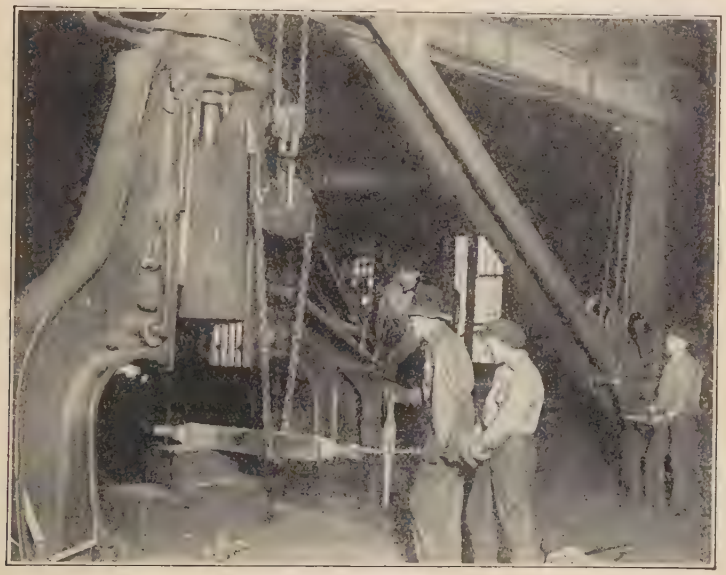
5. Mention five workers who had a part in making this book; name five who helped to build your school.

6. In your notebook draw two columns as shown below. In the first column write five things for which a city resident depends entirely on others; in the second column write five things for which a farmer depends entirely on others. Is the city resident or the farmer more dependent on others?

Dependence of a City Resident	Dependence of a Farmer
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.

Section II. How we Help One Another

The seven brothers and the seven sticks. Once upon a time, according to an old fable, there were seven brothers who quarreled constantly with one another. The father was much troubled over the conduct of his sons. Calling them



FORGING A BRAKE BEAM

In handling this heavy, red-hot brake beam each man knows that his teammates stand ready to do their part. The failure of any one of them would render the others helpless.

together, he offered a large reward to the one who could perform a task that he would set. When all had promised to live up to any lesson the test might teach, the father brought out a bundle of seven sticks and said, "Whichever one of you breaks these sticks shall be the winner of the prize."

One after another, each of the brothers tugged and strained, but in vain. When all had given up, the father took up the sticks, loosened the cord which bound them

together, and, taking each stick separately, quickly snapped all seven. Then turning to his astonished sons, he said: "The broken sticks are you, my sons. As long as you hold together, no one can do you harm. But if you fall apart, anyone can make broken reeds of you."

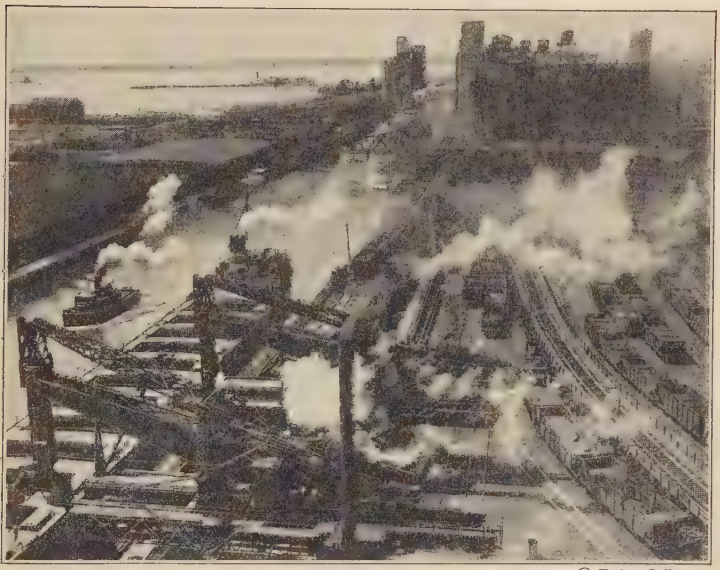
The old father was right. Ability to stand together is necessary for success in any common enterprise. By good teamwork eleven ordinary football-players can defeat a group of individual stars. Without the assistance of his mates the player with the ball can make but slight progress toward the goal. He may do his part perfectly, but without their support he is more likely to be thrown for a loss than he is to make a touchdown. Teamwork is the key to victory in athletics.

Teamwork in community life. All round us are enterprises in which many hands have a part. So common are such undertakings that we are likely to overlook them. Yet they enter into all aspects of community life.

Many people working together supply us with food, clothing, and household furnishings. A breakfast of bananas, buttered toast, bacon, and eggs is made possible only by the labors of fruit-growers in Central America, farmers in North Dakota or Canada, dairymen in Wisconsin, New York, or Virginia, and sugar planters in Cuba or Hawaii. To bring the different products to our tables, sailors, railroad men, and grocers combine their efforts. Thus, workers in field and mine, on land and sea, all have a hand in producing the variety that does so much to make our meals appetizing.

Back of most of our clothing is a similar story. Silk-spinners of China and Japan contribute to our neckties and stockings; sheep-herders of the Argentine or distant Australia supply the wool that enters into our suits and dresses; cowboys in Texas, chemists in Germany, spinners in Ireland, miners in Illinois, ironworkers in Pennsylvania, all unite to furnish the materials that make up our shoes.

Teamwork in industry. In the world of industry teamwork appears on a grand scale. The people who raise food, make clothing, build houses, drive locomotives, are all members of a vast squad who work together to supply the needs of the world. The farmer raises food in order that the carpenter



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TEAMWORK ON A GIGANTIC SCALE

After the great freighter is towed up to the wharf by the tug, its cargo is lifted by the ore-unloader into the waiting railroad cars. The trains then carry the ore to the elevators, warehouses, and factories where it is made into articles for our use.

may give his entire time to building. The manufacturer makes clothes, tools, or automobiles, knowing that the farmer will supply him with food and that the carpenter will build him a house.

All these workers in turn count on the writer, the publisher, and the lecturer for information; on the physician and the nurse for healing; on the minister and the artist for inspiration. In a similar way, each worker in a factory

looks to his fellow workers for the products of their labor, and they in turn look to him. Through their combined efforts the work goes on, and the needs of all are met.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is meant by teamwork? Give an illustration of teamwork at home; at school.

2. Point out two ways in which teamwork appears in a football game; in a tug of war; in a game of hockey.

3. Name three respects in which your life is richer than that of the Indians who lived in America four hundred years ago. Which of the improvements is due to better teamwork? Explain.

4. Tell about an enterprise in your community that succeeded because of good teamwork.

5. Why is a regiment of soldiers able to rout a mob, equally well armed, of ten times its number?

Section III. How we Conflict with One Another

Trouble in securing teamwork. Teamwork comes only through effort. The energy of a football coach is used chiefly in getting the men on the team to act together. The conductor of an orchestra spends no time in teaching the members of the organization how to play the violin, flute, cornet, or drum; he devotes his efforts to leading them to perform as a group, now rapidly, now slowly, now loudly, now softly. In the army most of an officer's time is occupied in training soldiers to move and act as a company or a regiment, not as separate individuals.

It may seem strange that there should be trouble in securing united action in a football team, since every player knows that victory depends on teamwork and not on individual effort. Soldiers, too, are aware that most of their strength comes from union, not from personal fighting

ability. But in both instances each member of the group has a mind of his own, and self-sacrifice, which most people do not like, is necessary if the group is to act together.

Differences which appear even in an athletic team or a musical organization, where the desire to work together is strong, are naturally more apparent among the inhabitants

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TWO KILLED AND FOUR INJURED

One man, heedless of the rules of the road, can bring disaster to many.

of a town or city where such desire may be weak. Here, in spite of the advantages of combined effort, disagreements arise between the individual and the group. Teamwork often means the giving up of our own opinions and personal interests, and most of us do not like to give up; consequently we find ourselves again and again in conflict with those around us.

Conflicts within groups. Examples of conflicts within groups are common. Eager to win applause, a basket ball

player takes a long shot at the basket instead of passing the ball to a team mate who is in a better position to score. In such a case the player sacrifices the team to win glory for himself. In the study hall or during a recitation period a boy has something he wishes to say to his neighbor. But whispering or talking will disturb others; teamwork therefore requires self-denial.

Community life is always accompanied by conflicting views and interests. Whenever people live together or rub elbows with one another, more or less friction usually results. All through life a person may find that what he wants leads to trouble with others. Even when he is a small child his liking for pie and cake may conflict with his parents' ideas of health. When he goes to school his effort to boss all the games results in trouble with his playmates. When he becomes a man his attempt to have his own way brings conflicts with family and associates. If he tries to catch a train by driving at high speed through the city streets, he is likely to endanger others and have difficulty with the police.

A man so selfish, when he finds his desires constantly interfered with, is quite likely to feel that the world is at fault for conflicts and that he is blameless. He will doubtless ask: "Who should decide such matters — I myself or others? If I suffer by not having my own way, why should I yield? Is not my own welfare more important than anything else? By what right or principle should others control me?"

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Tell about a conflict in interest between yourself and a group to which you belong. What did you have to give up?

2. Bring to class clippings or pictures from the newspapers which illustrate conflicting interests between individuals or groups of individuals. Be able to point out in each case the chief cause of the trouble.

3. Give illustrations of conflicting interests in the community in which you live.

4. Is selfishness the chief cause of conflicting interests? Explain and illustrate.

5. Give an example, not mentioned in Section III, which shows that teamwork requires self-denial. Mention any stories which illustrate the same idea.

6. Is it ever right for an individual to have his own way against the wishes of the group? Is it ever his duty? Give an example.

Section IV. How we Control One Another

Why the group should control. If the selfish fellow mentioned in the preceding section insists on knowing why he should give in when his interests are contrary to the interests of the group, the answer is that by no other method can he have his own way in so many respects. By giving in, he gains; by surrender, he wins.

If a fire should break out in your school building, for example, and you should follow an impulse to rush for the door regardless of others, a panic might result in which you and your classmates would be jammed in the halls and on the stairways, and many of you killed. But if you and your companions obeyed the rules of the fire drill, each one waiting for his time to pass, all would reach safety. Thus, by yielding to the group, you yourself would gain.

No one, of course, can have his own way in all matters. If the group did not have the right to decide disputes, constant disorder would exist or a struggle would continue until one person got control over all the others. Only the strong could satisfy their desires, and they but for a short time — until a stronger should arise. It is to the advantage of all, therefore, to have an arrangement by which the desires of as many people as possible may be satisfied. Control by the group and for the group is such an arrangement.

Group control satisfies the wishes of more individuals than does any other plan. It rests on the belief that what concerns all should be decided by all. It is the basis of what Lincoln called "government of the people, by the people, for the people." It is justifiable because it provides for "the greatest good to the greatest number." Group control is democracy, or rule by the people; individual control is autocracy, or rule by one.

Meaning of group control. Group control does not mean merely the way in which a group causes its members to do what they may not want to do. It may mean that, but it usually includes much more than that. Group control means the way in which society helps its members to get along with one another, and the methods by which it develops in them the desire to dress and eat and talk and play and work as the group thinks right.

True, one cannot always know just what a community thinks and wants, for the ideas of the members differ and their views change constantly. But on most matters there is little trouble in finding what the group approves or disapproves. The members may disagree over the color of shoes a man should wear or they may hold no opinion at all about the matter. But differ as they may on that subject, they will usually agree that a man should not go barefooted, at least not on the public streets; and, with rare exceptions, the man himself shares the view of the community.

Methods of group control. How does society get its members to accept its views? What methods does it use? If you will close the book for a moment and ask yourself just why you act as you do most of the time, you will discover some of the chief methods of control that the group employs.

For example, why do you go to school and to church? Why are you courteous to your parents, friends, and schoolmates? Why do you eat with knife, fork, and spoon instead of with your fingers or with chopsticks? Why do you think

as you do about games, school, and work? Answers to such questions should show that the chief methods of group control are law, custom, and public opinion.

1. *Law.* Every sport in which two or more people take part must have rules or regulations. In no other way is it possible to play checkers or golf. The rules tell what each

AFTERNOON TEA IN JAPAN

Dressed in gorgeous silk kimonos and seated on rich tapestry cushions, these Japanese girls are having afternoon tea at a club meeting. What customs appear in the picture that would be unfamiliar in an American home?

contestant may do. In community life rules or laws are equally needful. Here, too, people constantly engage in activities in which the welfare of all must be guarded from the selfishness of a few. Like the rules in a game, the laws, when fairly drawn, furnish protection to all.

Laws seem necessary to regulate the speed of automobiles, the charges railroads may collect for freight, the way buildings may be constructed, and the years during

which children must attend school. People have no method by which they can express their opinions or enforce their will so clearly and definitely as by law. Liberty itself is secure only when safeguarded by law.

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A GREEK GUARD

Guards of the president's palace in Athens dress like this because it is an old custom, although their garb is perhaps more picturesque than practical. The gentleman seems unmindful of the fact that his frivolous skirt and pomponed slippers do not accord with his stern gun and bayonet.

But important as law is, it is not the strongest method of group control. If there were no laws to punish theft, it is doubtful if many of us would become thieves and pickpockets, for we really want to do what society thinks is right. Few of us, indeed, act as we do because the law says we must. Do you eat, dress, or talk as you do because some statute compels you to do so? Are you kind and courteous because some city ordinance will punish you if you act otherwise? No; most of us behave as we do day by day, because of custom and public opinion rather than because the law requires us to do so.

2. *Custom.* Many of our laws developed from custom. The practice of driving on the right side of the road was customary long before it was required by law. The rules and principles of both common law and international law began in custom. Custom is the habit of the group.

Custom explains many curious practices in different parts of the world. It explains why in certain Asiatic countries women wear pantaloons and men dress in long, flowing garments. It explains why the members of the British Parliament usually sit with their hats on and why

HEADDRESSES OF THE PAST

Why should a girl wear something on her head which looks like a large inverted ice-cream cone or like towels drying on a clothes rack? Did the girls of the thirteenth century wear such hats because of law, custom, or public opinion?

the members of our Congress usually sit with their hats off. It explains why Japanese books begin at the back of the volume and why ours begin at the front.

Custom throws light on national differences in food, language, and manners. Afternoon tea is a tradition in Great Britain; pie for breakfast was a fashion for many years in New England. In our country shaking the head from side to side means "no"; in Syria a similar movement means "repeat," and raising the chin means "no." We go to school five days a week because that is the custom; we eat turkey and cranberry sauce on Thanksgiving Day because that is the custom; we celebrate Halloween on the last day of October because that is the custom. Custom regulates many of our daily activities and helps to shape our lives more than we usually realize.

3. *Public opinion.* Public opinion, which is one of the strongest methods of group control, is what people think about an act or policy; that is, whether it is good or bad. Most of us care very little about what one person thinks of us if his opinion is shared by no one else; but when his view is accepted by others, we feel very differently about the matter. Rarely do we regard an act as good if the community looks upon it as bad, or consider a deed bad if the community believes it good.

Public opinion influences what we do on the playgrounds, in the corridors, and on the streets. It decides elections, causes the passage and enforcement of laws, and forces nations to go to war and compels them to make peace. Public opinion influences everyone: it affects the schoolboy and the old man; it reaches from the mansion to the tenement; it controls the workman and the employer, the lowliest peasant and the mightiest monarch.

The three methods of social control explained in this section are very closely connected. Public opinion helps to form custom and law, but custom and law in turn help to form public opinion. Custom leads to the passage of laws; laws affect custom. We behave as we do from day to day largely as the result of all three methods of control. The influence of any one of them varies with individuals and with circumstances.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Is self-sacrifice always necessary in teamwork? Illustrate.

2. Which of the three methods of group control discussed in this section influences you most? Explain, with examples.

3. What methods of group control do you have in your classroom? in your school?

4. Name methods of control that are used in business enterprises. Give an example of each method in the industries in your community.

5 Tell an incident showing the force of custom in your community, a story revealing the influence of public opinion in your neighborhood, or an episode illustrating the power of law in your state.

Section V. How you can do your Part

The dissatisfied pendulum. Once upon a time, according to an old story, a clock that had faithfully served its owner for fifty years, suddenly stopped. Wheels, weights, hands, pendulum, and dial plate were each intact, but no movement took place within the old timepiece.

In the conference concerning the cause of the trouble that took place between the different parts, the pendulum finally confessed that it alone was responsible for the stoppage. The prospect of ticking millions of times in the years to come, it declared, was so discouraging that it had decided to quit.

Hereupon the dial reminded the pendulum that only one stroke at a time was required and that a moment would always be given in which to swing. Cheered by this view of the matter, the pendulum renewed its work, the wheels began to turn, the hands began to move, and the old clock was on its way as steady as ever.

The persons who make up a community are in many ways like the parts of a timepiece: the efforts of all are necessary to keep the common enterprise at its best. Fortunately the failure of one individual to do his task is not so disastrous to the community as was the failure of the pendulum to the old clock. But the difference in degree should not blind our eyes to the fact that the failure of one is always an injury to all.

Each of us, like any one piece in a clock, has a part to play in the community. Our part may be large or it may be small. But it is *our* part. No one else in all the world can play it for us.

Guides to conduct. What, then, can you do? What service can you render? What is your part in community life?

First of all, you can be grateful to others for what they do for you. You owe much to your mother, father, teacher, classmates, and friends. They all contribute to your welfare and happiness. You can show your appreciation by word and act.

In the second place, you can look for ways in which to be helpful, — at home, at school, in the neighborhood, and in the community. Opportunities lie all about you. Find them.

In the third place, you can do whatever you find that needs to be done. You can be dependable in whatever you undertake, whether the task be large or small. You can say, with Edward Everett Hale:

> I am only one — but still I am one;
> I cannot do everything, but still I can do something;
> And because I cannot do everything,
> I will not refuse to do the something I can do.

You can be trustworthy.

In the fourth place, you can learn to work with others. Try to follow; try to lead. Discover how to obey orders and how to give them. Be a good team mate. Learn to coöperate.

You can recognize ability in other people. Be content at times to perform insignificant duties in order that someone, better fitted, may do the larger task. Honor ability when you see it.

You can respect the rights of others. If what you want to do will interfere with the welfare of the group, you can sacrifice your own desires. You can be unselfish.

Summary. We live together because we depend on one another. Each of us relies on the group; the group relies on each of us. Interdependence is the basis of community life. From our dependence upon one another comes the need for coöperation, or teamwork. Without teamwork we

should be like wild beasts in the jungle, each striving for himself with little or no thought of others. Through teamwork the world moves from savagery to civilization.

In spite of the benefits of coöperation, differences in points of view and interests often lead to conflicts in which

"WE"

Colonel Charles A. Lindbergh thinks of his airplane as a team mate. In telling about his nonstop flight, which he made alone from New York to Paris, he has always used the pronoun "we" instead of "I." Lindbergh is popular not only because he is courageous, but also because he is modest, trustworthy, capable, and unselfish.

the welfare of the many is sacrificed to the temporary advantage of the few; hence, the protection of all makes necessary control by all. Chief among the methods of group control are law, custom, and public opinion. Each form of control, when rightly conceived, is a means of promoting the welfare of all. Realizing his indebtedness to others, the good citizen refuses to consider merely his

own interests, but does whatever he can, heartily and cheerfully, to help all undertakings that tend to better community life.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why should a person obey a law that he does not like? Should he obey it even though he would not be punished if he broke it? Give reasons.

2. While on his island Robinson Crusoe became in turn a carpenter, farmer, stock-raiser, doctor, basket-maker, hatter, miller, cook, boat-builder, and tailor. Why did he not become a merchant? banker? policeman?

3. Tom Jones, one of your neighbors, earns $200 a month; he and his family spend every cent of his income. Is this of any concern to you? Explain.

4. Susan Harris, while working yesterday in a glove factory, had her right hand cut off. Does her accident affect the community in any way? Give reasons.

5. Last year Brown, a pupil at the Harvey School, was tardy four times and absent eight times. As a result of his absence he failed in his studies. Tell how his failure affects his parents; his classmates; the community.

6. Mention examples which show that the world moves ahead through improvements in teamwork.

7. Mention one way in which you can improve the community in which you live.

THINGS TO DO

1. With the aid of several classmates present a tableau or pantomime illustrating teamwork.

2. Bring to class clippings, pictures, or cartoons showing the power of law, custom, or public opinion.

3. Tell a story in which conflicting interests appear between one person and a group.

4. Make a poster illustrating interdependence in your community.

5. Suggest three ways to improve teamwork in your school.

6. Sketch the plot of a novel which illustrates the power of public opinion.

7. Write a theme describing some old customs which are still observed in a community you once visited.

8. Describe a street accident in which the intelligent teamwork of the bystanders saved the lives of the injured persons.

BOOKS TO READ

(Stars indicate readings especially interesting and worth while)

I. Classroom Readings

(From the Classroom Library given on page vi)

1. "Brotherhood," Edwin Markham, *America's Message*, 268.
2. "Robert E. Peary, Discoverer of the North Pole," *Heroes of Progress*, 245–253.
3. * "The Deep-Sea Diver," *Careers of Danger and Daring*, 40–86.
4. * "The Social Life and Industries of Ants," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 331–339.
5. "Some Early Forms of Social Control," *ibid.*, 357–368.
6. "Abner's Whale," F. T. Bullen, *The Worker and his Work*, 294–305.
7. "A Moving Picture," *Fiber and Finish*, 1–6.
8. "Playing the Game," *ibid.*, 130–140.
9. "The Weather Bureau," *The American Government*, 227–236.
10. "In the Workshop of the Bees," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, I, 359–364.
11. * "The Daily Bread of All the World," *ibid.*, II, 496–500.
12. "Robinson Crusoe in Fact and Fiction," *ibid.*, III, 933–934.
13. "How we Live Together," *Readings in Community Life*, Part I, section 1.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. *We*, by Charles A. Lindbergh. Putnam.
2. *Tiny Toilers and their Works*, by Graves G. Clark. Century.
3. *The Cruise of the Snark*, by Jack London. Donohue.
4. *The Cruise of the Cachalot*, by Frank T. Bullen. Appleton.
5. * *The Story of Foods*, by Forrest Crissey. Rand McNally.

6. * *A Vagabond Voyage around the World*, by Harry A. Franck. Century.
7. *Autobiography*, by Benjamin Franklin. Ginn.
8. *Adrift on an Ice Pan*, by Wilfred T. Grenfell. Houghton.
9. * *The Story of my Life*, by Helen Keller. Doubleday.
10. * *Around the World in the Sloop Spray*, by Joshua Slocum. Century.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *Mutineers*, by Charles B. Hawes. Atlantic.
2. *Moby Dick*, by Herman Melville. Ginn.
3. *Suzanne and the Pacific*, by Jean Giraudoux. Putnam.
4. *Running Eagle*, by James W. Schultz. Houghton.
5. *The Lady of the Lake*, by Walter Scott. Ginn.
6. * *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*, by Mark Twain. Harper.
7. *Captain January*, by Laura E. Richards. Doubleday.
8. *Hervé Riel*, by Robert Browning. Houghton.
9. * *Robinson Crusoe*, by Daniel Defoe. Harper.
10. * *Men of Iron*, by Howard Pyle. Harper.
11. * *Treasure Island*, by Robert Louis Stevenson. Ginn.
12. *Ungava Bob*, by Dillon Wallace. Grosset.
13. *The Land of Heart's Desire*, by William Butler Yeats. Macmillan.
14. *David Copperfield*, by Charles Dickens. Jacobs.
15. *The Adventures of Billy Topsail*, by Norman Duncan. Revell.
16. * *The Piper*, by Josephine P. Peabody. Houghton.
17. *The Lance of Kanana*, by Henry W. French. Lothrop.

CHAPTER II

THE FAMILY AND THE HOME

'Tis there we find sweet peace of mind,
And quietude and rest,
For there are books and quiet nooks,
And truest friends and best.
And there Love lights a little lamp
That twinkles through the gloam,
To guide us to that dearest spot
In all the wide world — Home.

MAURINE HATHAWAY

SECTION I. WHAT WE OWE TO OUR ANCESTORS

Differences among individuals. No two of us are exactly alike. Some are tall, some are short; some are fat, some are lean; some are fair, others have dark complexions. We differ in the color of our eyes, in the shape of our features, in the character of our tastes, abilities, and dispositions. Even twins who resemble each other so closely that ordinary observers cannot tell one from the other cause little uncertainty to their parents, brothers, and sisters.

Variations appear also among the lower animals. Members of the same species may look the same to us, but the differences which separate them are very apparent to the animals themselves. A mother seal leaves her cub with thousands of other young seals, all apparently alike, while she swims miles away to the feeding grounds. On her return, no matter how long delayed, she never has any trouble in picking out her own offspring. And what is true of mother seals is true generally of other mothers.

Causes of differences. The features that make one creature distinct from another are due in part to differences

in surroundings and in needs. The polar bear wears a thick coat of fur for protection from the arctic cold; the rabbit and the fox have paws and teeth suitable for burrowing; the duck and the beaver require webbed feet for swimming. Thus differences in surroundings and in the mode of living help to explain endless variations in the animal kingdom.

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TWIN BROTHERS

Can you name any points in which these two youngsters differ?

But differences among members of the same family, whether in humankind or among lower animals, are caused chiefly by differences in inheritance. A human baby is in some ways often like its mother; in other ways it is frequently like its father. But it is always different from either parent. Occasionally a child is more like one of its grandfathers or great-grandfathers than like its own father. Or it may resemble a grandmother or great-grandmother more

FOUR GENERATIONS

Few children are so fortunate as this little girl who has ten living ancestors — mother and father, two grandmothers, two grandfathers, two great-grandmothers, and two great-grandfathers. Whom does she most resemble?

than it resembles its mother. All that we can be certain about is that, no matter how much a baby may resemble one of its ancestors, it will be a duplicate of none of them, because it will inherit traits from all. Oliver Wendell Holmes, the poet, recognized his indebtedness to his own grandmother in the following lines:

O Damsel Dorothy! Dorothy Q!
Strange is the gift that I owe to you;
Such a gift as never a king
Save to daughter or son might bring, —
What if a hundred years ago
Those close-shut lips had answered No,
Should I be I, or would it be
One tenth another, to nine tenths me?

Our social heritage. Through the family, as a rule, we receive our social inheritance. The language we speak, the ideals we cherish, the customs we observe, the religion we believe, come to us usually through our fathers and mothers. Property, such as land, houses, and money, also is handed down as a rule from parents to children. From our fathers and mothers and from more remote ancestors we are indebted in large part for life, material possessions, individuality, culture, and civilization.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Tell about the ancestor you most resemble. Point out two ways in which you are like your father or mother; two ways in which you differ from either parent.

2. Describe twins whom you cannot tell apart. How does their mother distinguish one from the other?

3. Name four possessions you have received from your ancestors. Which possession do you value most highly?

4. Tell about a hero or heroine among your ancestors. Do you know how your family name originated?

5. *Research topic for volunteers:* Tell about inherited features and traits which have appeared in such families as the Hapsburgs and the descendants of John Adams.

Section II. What we learn at Home

Dependence on parents. The young of many of the lower animals are able to take care of themselves almost from birth. From the very first a baby hippopotamus can swim. When only a few days old a young elephant is able to follow its mother about. Kittens can catch mice when but two or three months of age. Young lions and tigers are able to protect themselves from their enemies within a year and a half.

Compared with the young of the lower animals, a human baby is most helpless and dependent. Its mind is a blank; its body is little more than a promise. For months it must depend on its mother for everything. As a rule a year or more goes by before it can walk or talk. A longer time elapses before it is able to dress itself. Years pass before a child can protect himself from danger or can provide himself with food, clothing, and shelter.

Parents' education of the young. During the period of dependence the young learn constantly from the parents. Even among the lower animals the educational work of the family can be seen. Robins and bluebirds teach their nestlings to fly. Mother seals show their babies how to swim. A lioness teaches her offspring to stalk deer, goats, and cattle; even before the young lions leave the lair she lets them play with her tail, training them to seize and worry it so as to give them experience that will be helpful in catching prey; sometimes both parents teach the young lions to hunt.

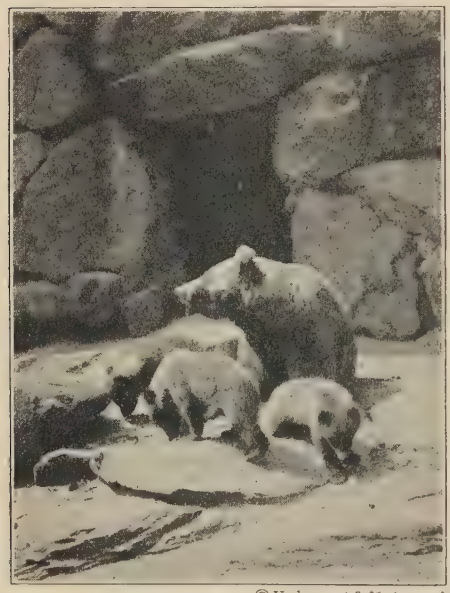
AN EAGLE'S NEST

An eagle plans her nest early in May and continues to use it year after year. Notice how strong the nest is built.

The unusually long period of childhood and youth in the life of man gives the human family an unrivaled opportunity to instruct the young. During the years when children depend upon their parents for food, clothing, and protection, their mothers and fathers have countless occasions in which to teach ideals, habits, and attitudes. It

will increase our appreciation of our own parents if we consider some of the things we learn from them.

1. *Language.* Almost everyone learns to talk in the family. Since most of us cannot remember a time when we were not able to speak, we are likely to take language for granted and as a matter of no great importance. Only when we try to master a foreign tongue or read the fascinating story of how Helen Keller, who was both blind and deaf, conquered speech, does the true meaning and difficulty of learning a language dawn in our minds.



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A BEAR FAMILY

A mother bear's chief concern in life is the safety of her frolicsome cubs.

The importance of language and other methods of exchanging ideas can hardly be exaggerated. We should not be able to work, play, or act together in any way if we could not communicate with one another. Without power to exchange thought we could make no progress, for each generation would have no way to find out what the preceding generation had learned and hence would be forced to start where its ancestors had begun. Without the ability to exchange ideas each of us would live by himself and for himself. Community life under such circumstances is unthinkable, since teamwork, the very heart of the community, would be impossible.

Now, with rare exceptions, human speech is learned in the family. A baby, of course, does not know how to ask for what it wants, nor can it understand a word its mother says. Only when it discovers that crying brings what it wants, such as something to eat or a change of position, does a baby cry with any object in view. Slowly and gradually it learns, however, that sounds made with the voice bring pleasant results. This experience is followed by the learning of words and sentences, usually from the lips of mother and father, older brothers and sisters. Thus the family accomplishes its first great educational task, the teaching of language.

2. *Opinions and tastes.* Most of our opinions and tastes are acquired in the home. With proper allowance for differences due to age, children generally like what their fathers and mothers enjoy. If the parents have a deep interest in books and magazines, the son or daughter usually likes to read.

Is not a similar result apparent in the case of music and art, of amusements and athletics? During a political campaign do you not usually cheer and argue for the candidates for whom your father or mother expects to vote? Exceptions occur, of course; but as a rule the attitude of parents toward politics, religion, prohibition, fashion, and sport determines the attitude of the children.

3. *Habits of work.* We also form habits of industry or laziness in the family. If you have learned that a certain task about the house is your job, and if you do your work with promptness and care, you are forming habits of industry that will serve you well in the years to come. But if you have nothing to do at home, or if you shirk your chores or do them carelessly, you are in danger of falling into habits of idleness which will be hard to overcome when you grow up.

4. *Ideas of government.* Our earliest ideas of government likewise are gained in the home. Here we first see the need

for rules of conduct to guard the rights of the different members of the family; here we first come to respect

HELPING IN THE YARD

Cutting and raking grass is healthful outdoor exercise, besides being a great help to father.

authority. The boy or girl who learns to obey his parents rarely has trouble at school or in the community because of disobedience to rules or laws.

Government began in the home. In early days the father had complete authority over the family, as we see in the Bible stories of Abraham and Jacob. A Roman father had the power of life and death over his children. Nowadays both the father and the mother guide home life while the children are small. When the boys and girls are older, all members of the group have a voice in deciding questions of common concern. But no matter what method of control and management is followed, it is in the home that we first learn about government, its purpose, problems, and services.

5. *Ideals of right and wrong.* Our ideals of right and wrong also are formed largely in the family circle. Here we learn to be unselfish, honest, and loyal through lessons taught by stories and obedience to commands, or impressed in a deeper way by the daily lives of mother, father, and older brothers and sisters.

When the home contains a number of children, unselfishness and loyalty may easily become habits as a result of the consideration for the rights and welfare of others necessary in such a group. True, opposite tendencies may take root through yielding to the temptation to get all one can and give no more than one must. In either case we develop in the home ideals of service or selfishness.

6. *Religion.* Our earliest and usually our deepest impressions of God are formed in the family. Rarely, indeed, does a truly religious person come from a godless home. In later years we may wander from the instruction we received in childhood, but its influence abides and over and over again will bring us back to our early faith.

The most attractive qualities of God himself appear when we think of Him as our Heavenly Father. The most sacred ceremonies of the Christian and Jewish religions have as their symbol a family meal. A church is frequently called a brotherhood or a "household of faith." Even the world to come is often spoken of as a home. On the stone

that marks the grave of Robert Louis Stevenson, for example, are carved the words,

> Home is the sailor, home from sea,
> And the hunter home from the hill.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why is the opportunity to teach the young greater in a human family than in an animal family?

2. Compare the length of youth of two of the lower animals with the length of youth of man.

3. Tell about peculiar words, expressions, or family sayings used in your home.

4. Name three habits you have learned at home; three tastes you have formed there.

5. Which of the Ten Commandments refers especially to home life? Learn and recite this Commandment in class.

Section III. What Home Means

Home. We cannot measure the best things in life with a yardstick nor weigh them in a pair of scales. The greatest scientist is unable to determine how much is added to human happiness by the perfume of a rose, the beauty of a sunset, or the glory of the stars. Poets, painters, and orators find it equally difficult to portray the meaning of home.

The elements that enter into the make-up of home are such stuff as dreams are made of, for home is a matter of feeling, not reasoning. Home is the place where one belongs, where he fits in, where he has a right to be because in a peculiar sense it is his very own. All true patriots have this feeling about their country, especially in times of national danger, or after traveling in an alien land. In one of his poems Walter Scott asks:

Breathes there the man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
"This is my own, my native land!"
Whose heart hath ne'er within him burned,
As home his footsteps he hath turned
From wandering on a foreign strand?

The home circle. Although home may mean the land of one's birth, the word has its most familiar and tender associations in connection with the family group. The very origin of the word is, in fact, the family circle. About this circle the earliest memories cling, the closest companionships are formed, and the greatest kindliness and affection are found.

Unhappily there are homes in which the unpleasant side of human nature is outermost; in which selfishness and quarreling, instead of generosity and affection, appear so often that the members of the family drift away in search of pleasanter surroundings. Fortunately, even in such homes, the disagreeable memories tend to fade away with the passing of the years, leaving only fond recollections of father and mother, brothers and sisters.

The ideal home. If love of home is so sure even under unfavorable circumstances, its power can hardly be overstated when the family circle is a center of happiness. In the ideal home kindly affection exists among all the members of the family. The parents take part in the fun of the children, and the children in turn are interested in the good times of the parents. Brothers and sisters, inspired by the comradeship of the father and mother, see in one another the best of playmates and the closest of friends. Bound together by affection and companionship, the members of the family find home the best place in all the world.

The home of Theodore Roosevelt seems to have been just such a circle. When Mr. Roosevelt was President he always found time for a romp with the younger children and a game or a chat with the older ones. When away from home

he constantly inquired in his letters about their studies, books, pets, friends, and sports. The mother, too, was a boon companion, and among the children themselves the heartiest good comradeship seems to have prevailed. Thus the father and the mother, the boys and the girls, found in their own home circle the best of friends and the happiest of times.

House and home. We sometimes think that we must live in a fine house in order to have an ideal home; but the words "house" and "home" do not have the same meaning, although we sometimes use one for the other. Most of us, it is true, occasionally become attached to places or objects because of persons or events associated with them. This is especially true of the dwelling one occupies. Frequently a very real affection grows up about its every nook and corner. But in spite of such associations house and home are in reality very different. When a family moves from one locality to another, the home moves too, even though a warm affection continues for the former residence.

We all desire an attractive, beautifully furnished dwelling place, and it is entirely proper that we should do all we can to have such a residence as a home. But we should realize at the same time that the character of the dwelling place has little to do with its being or not being a home. As a poet expressed it,

> A house is built of bricks and stone,
> Of tiles and posts and piers,
> But a home is built of loving deeds
> That stand a thousand years.

People who dwell in mansions sometimes do not know the meaning of the word "home"; others who occupy rude cabins often find them centers of peace and affection. Home, then, does not depend on the sort of building in which one lives, but on the kindness and love one finds within.

ORCHARD HOUSE

Louisa M. Alcott lived in this house and played under these trees. In "Little Women" she used this setting for Meg, Jo, Beth, and Amy.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention two ways in which love of country and love of home are alike.

2. Point out three differences between a residence and a home.

3. Tell about a beautiful mansion which was a hiding place of tragedy or a center of happiness in some story that you have read.

4. *Reports for volunteers:*

a. For a boy: Compare Roosevelt and Lincoln as ideal fathers. See Lyman and Hill, *Literature and Living*, Book One, 73–83, and Book Three, 295–302.

b. For a girl: Compare Kathleen Norris's description of an ideal mother with that found in the Bible. See Lyman and Hill, *Literature and Living*, Book One, 104–106.

Section IV. How to make Home Safe

Importance of dangers to the home. Anything which threatens the foundations of a building endangers the entire structure. The community is a building, and the foundations on which it rests are the homes of its citizens. Any event or tendency which injures the home or interferes with its work is therefore a danger, both to the family and to the entire community.

Five dangers that threaten home life are disease and death, tenancy, work outside the home, outside amusements, and divorce. Some of these will not necessarily destroy the family, any more than cigarettes or late hours will necessarily cause death to a growing boy. But just as cigarettes and late hours injure a lad's health, so any condition or tendency which interferes with the services of the family is dangerous to its welfare and is a cause of concern to all who are interested in the well-being of society.

1. *Disease and death.* The first danger to the home to be considered here is the long illness or early death of the father or mother. When either event occurs children lose

the parental care they need. The death of the father often leaves the family without support, so that the mother must go to work in a factory, shop, or store. In such circumstances the children frequently have no oversight and run wild in the alleys and on the streets, learning bad habits and exposed to constant dangers and temptations.

Pension laws in many states make it unnecessary for mothers to work outside their homes, for such laws provide that any mother in need of financial aid may receive a certain sum of money each week to help her keep the family together or to assist her in meeting her own necessities in old age. Many parents carry enough life insurance to keep the family together even in the case of their own deaths. Most employers now have liability insurance providing for regular payments to employees injured when at work, some states requiring employers to carry such insurance. Thus, by insurance provisions and by mothers' pensions, the home can to a large extent be protected against the dangers which threaten it through disease and death.

2. *Tenancy.* A less important danger to the home is tenancy. Few people own the buildings in which they live. In New York City only one family out of eight owns its home wholly or in part. Of the large cities of the country Baltimore has the highest percentage of home-ownership, but even in Baltimore less than half the families own their homes, and in many cases the owner is in debt for part of the cost. In rural communities, too, tenancy is extensive and is on the increase.

It is difficult to see how the lack of home-ownership can be remedied; in certain circumstances, indeed, the possession of a residence may even prove undesirable. Nevertheless, one of the ties which bound the family together in the old days is missing when the dwelling place is rented. We usually become attached to a house which we own, in which we were born, and in which our parents and perhaps our

grandparents lived before us. Frequent changes in residence destroy such ties, and the effect, especially on children and young people, is unfortunate.

3. *Work outside the home.* Until one hundred and fifty years ago the home was the center of industry. A spinning-wheel was as common an article of furniture as a table. In the attic or a neighboring shed stood the heavy hand loom for weaving cloth. About the house was a plot of ground for the raising of vegetables and for the pasturing of a cow, horse, a pig or two, and a few sheep. Hours of toil were long and work was hard, but parents were always at hand to counsel and instruct their children. Thus boys and girls learned from their fathers and mothers both methods of work and ideas of right and wrong.

COÖPERATIVE APARTMENT HOUSE

Under the coöperative-ownership plan each apartment in a building is sold separately. This apartment building, for instance, is owned by one hundred and twenty families who reside in it. They use the top floor jointly for laundry and storage.

Today, especially in cities, not only do the inhabitants no longer own their homes, but they do not work in them. Nowadays the father and the older boys, after a hasty breakfast, go to the mill, factory, or office, not to return home, as a rule, until the evening. The mother and older daughters, too, are often employed in outside tasks, and have little time for home-making.

The effect of outside employment on the family can be seen at once. Without the care of the mother or the oversight of the father, the younger children, when not in school, spend much of their time in the streets. Busy at their work, the parents cannot make home what it ought to be. Thus outside employment threatens the family, and unless institutions like the school and the church furnish instruction and activities formerly provided in the home, the community as well as the boys and girls will suffer.

4. *Outside amusements.* In the old days the family was the center of merrymaking and sociability. Parties, dances, and entertainments were usually held in the homes of the boys and girls, and the influence of the family circle was always present. But nowadays outside amusements often lure the family away from home. When the members meet at the end of the day, if they are not so tired that they go to bed shortly after the evening meal, they seek amusement at the motion pictures, the club, the dance hall, or the theater. Thus the home loses an opportunity to become the center of happiness, and recreation itself becomes a source of danger.

The radio and the automobile have helped to overcome outside attractions. Many boys and girls have discovered that the entertainment furnished over a head phone or loud speaker is more interesting and less expensive than that which can be secured away from home. The automobile, too, has proved a means of holding the family together. Automobile trips and camping tours often knit ties which equal, if they do not surpass, those formed in the past around the fireside.

5. *Divorce.* The break-up of the home through divorce is the last danger to be considered here. When a family is disrupted the children are the worst sufferers. Records of juvenile courts and reform schools show that the children of separated parents get into trouble much more frequently than children who have the advantages of home life.

A change in attitude toward marriage is one of the causes of broken homes. People formerly looked upon a wedding as a religious ceremony, and few persons married with any other thought than to go through life together. Today marriage is too often regarded as a mere contract that may be ended for the slightest of reasons or causes.

A CHURCH WEDDING

When the home is built on religion, family ties are strengthened.

Hasty marriage is a second cause of divorce. Without taking time to discover whether their liking for one another rests on similar tastes, ideals, and interests, young folk sometimes rush into marriage only to find out, when too late, that they have made a mistake. People with dissimilar tastes, it is true, are often happy with each other; but as a rule two cannot walk together unless they are agreed. If they try to do so, discord, wrangling, and separation are likely to follow.

Hasty marriages are made possible by the laws of many states. So long as a marriage license or a divorce decree can be secured almost as easily as a dog license, some people will marry heedlessly. Since marriage and divorce laws are the work of the states, we have forty-eight different codes dealing with the subject. Hence the good laws of one state are often defeated by the bad laws of another. In like manner wise court procedure in one state is frequently made of no avail by bad court procedure in a different state. Only through uniform marriage laws can this cause of family disruption be removed. Uniform legislation may be brought about through amendment of the national Constitution or through the enacting of uniform laws by the various state legislatures. The Commission on Uniform State Laws, composed of distinguished judges, lawyers, and professors in law schools, is working toward uniform state laws in regard to various matters; and some of its recommendations have already been made laws by every state in the Union.

Unfortunately the roots of divorce lie deeper than laws and courts. Usually a home is broken up before a divorce is granted. In such instances the decree does not separate a family: it only legalizes an existing fact. The truth is that people sometimes enter the marriage relation with wrong ideas about its obligations and with an unwillingness to sacrifice for each other's happiness. Each, intent on having his own way, allows petty grievances to become serious differences, and friction, fault-finding, and divorce follow. Only strong affection, combined with a willingness for self-sacrifice, can overcome such difficulties and make marriage a happy, lasting union.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. In how many different residences have you lived? Describe the dwelling place you liked best.

2. Mention any occupations or amusements in your community that seem to interfere with home life.

3. Tell how marriage in your community is controlled by public opinion; by custom; by law. (Re-read pages 19–22.)

4. Give two reasons why a modern city apartment does not lend itself easily to family festivities.

5. What seems to be the greatest danger to the home? How can this danger be lessened or removed?

Section V. How you can help your Home

Main purpose of the family. The family exists chiefly for the sake of you, — the boys and girls. The home is planned primarily with your interests in mind. In large measure food is selected, meals are arranged, furnishings are supplied, and the house is chosen to promote your welfare. You in turn have much to do with determining whether your home is a center of good cheer and happiness or a place in which friction and wrangling abound. How can you do your part?

1. Do your share of the work about the house. It is impossible to eat and sleep and live without work on the part of someone. Meals must be cooked, dishes washed, beds made, floors swept, garbage carried out, rooms straightened. Decide which of the common tasks you can do best. Then do your bit willingly and cheerfully.

2. Add beauty to your home. No matter how plain a dwelling place may be, one can always give it touches of beauty. Occasionally the cleaning of a yard, the nailing of loose pickets on a fence, and a touch of paint will work wonders on the outside appearance of a house. With slight expense the interior, too, may be greatly improved by a little thought and pains. Make your own room attractive. Help to beautify your home.

3. Contribute to good times at home. Inform your family about your friends. Tell of the interesting events and experiences of the day. Show an interest in the work of your father, the activities of your mother, and the doings of your brothers and sisters. Talk over the news in the

daily paper. Now and then introduce a new game. Do your part to supply reading, music, conversation, and amusement. Contribute to the fun at home.

4. Be kind at home. According to an old maxim, familiarity breeds contempt. At home, unfortunately, close companionship often seems to breed rudeness and discourtesy. Brothers and sisters sometimes have less consideration for

DISHES!

They must be done and the prospect is not cheerful. But a clean, orderly kitchen always repays us for our labors.

one another than for outside acquaintances. Occasionally boys and girls show their parents less respect than they show utter strangers. In few ways can you do more to make home happy than by being at your best when at home. Act toward your parents as you would like to have your own children act some future day toward you. Remember that no one cares for you so much as your mother and father, your sisters and brothers. Show them your appreciation. Be courteous, friendly, and considerate at home.

Summary. The family is the oldest and most important human institution. Through it we receive life, hereditary traits, and to a large extent our social heritage. During childhood and youth we depend upon the family for food, clothing, shelter, and protection. In the home we first learn language and acquire opinions and tastes, habits of work, ideas of government, notions of right and wrong, and conceptions of religion. Home is the center of the finest things in life.

The most serious dangers to the home are disease, tenancy, outside employment, outside amusements, and divorce. Life insurance and mothers' pensions will do much to protect the family from the disasters attending disease and death. The school and church can help to solve the problems that grow out of tenancy, industry, and outside amusements. Better marriage laws and improved court procedure, when combined with a clear understanding of the meaning of family life, will go far toward lessening the divorce evil. Each of us can help to make home happy by doing our part of the home tasks, by contributing to home recreation, and by being courteous and kind to the members of the home group.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Memorize and explain the stanza at the head of the chapter.

2. What part of the work at home is your regular job? How much time do your tasks ordinarily require?

3. Mention one way in which you influence the opinions and tastes of the members of your family.

4. Describe three events that are celebrated in your family.

5. Tell about the best time you ever had at home. Name two books that would be enjoyable to read aloud at home.

6. Copy the following chart in your notebook. In each column give five examples of the element in home life named at the top of the column.

ELEMENTS IN HOME LIFE

INTERDEPENDENCE	TEAMWORK	CONFLICT	CONTROL
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			

THINGS TO DO

1. Dramatize a scene in the life of a happy family; a scene in the life of an unhappy family.

2. Suggest a word which several of the members of your family might act out for the other members to guess.

3. Plan an evening program of stunts, music, games, and reading for your home. Include something for each member of the family to do.

4. Suggest ways of celebrating Parents' Day in your community.

5. Plan a Better Homes Campaign for your community. Choose a committee to write for suggestions to Better Homes in America, 1653 Pennsylvania Avenue, Washington, D. C.

6. Write a story about a happy family in humble circumstances who depended entirely on one another for fun and amusement. Tell how they gained wealth, how outside interests and temptations injured the home, and how family ties were finally restored.

BOOKS TO READ

I. CLASSROOM READINGS

1. * "The Pioneer Mother," H. N. Pratt, *America's Message*, 70.
2. "Farm Education for Home Life," J. Field, *In Our Times*, 498–502.
3. * "Gesture Language," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 169–176.
4. "Ivy of the Negatives," M. Lynn, *The Worker and his Work*, 247–259.
5. "The Breaking of Bread," *Fiber and Finish*, 60–70.

6. "America's Most Illustrious Family," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, I, 12–16.
7. * "Where Beauty Rules the Humblest Home," *ibid.*, IV, 1873–1876.
8. "The Family and the Home," *Readings in Community Life*, Part 1, section 2.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. * *Home Life around the World*, by George A. Mirick. Houghton.
2. *Child Life in Japan*, by M. C. Ayrton. Heath.
3. * *Curious Homes and their Tenants*, by Daniel C. Beard. Appleton.
4. * *Theodore Roosevelt's Letters to his Children*, edited by Joseph B. Bishop. Scribner.
5. *Home Life in Colonial Days*, by Alice M. Earle. Macmillan.
6. *When I was a Boy in China*, by Yan Phou Lee. Lothrop.
7. *Wilderness Babies*, by Julia A. Schwartz. Little.
8. *The Babyhood of Wild Beasts*, by Georgia M. McNally. Doran.
9. *Far Away and Long Ago*, by William H. Hudson. Dutton.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *Blue Bird for Children*, by Maurice Maeterlinck. Dodd.
2. *The Four Gordons*, by Edna A. Brown. Lothrop.
3. *Mother Carey's Chickens*, by Kate D. Wiggin. Grosset.
4. * *Christmas Carol*, by Charles Dickens. Dutton.
5. *Sohrab and Rustum*, by Matthew Arnold. Doubleday.
6. *The Mill on the Floss*, by George Eliot. Ginn.
7. * *Little Men*, by Louisa M. Alcott. Little.
8. * *Little Women*, by Louisa M. Alcott. Little.
9. *The Cricket on the Hearth*, by Charles Dickens. Putnam.
10. *In the Morning Glow*, by Roy R. Gilson. Grosset.
11. *Helen's Babies*, by John Habberton. Stokes.
12. * *The Old Nest*, by Rupert Hughes. Century.
13. *Mother*, by Kathleen Norris. Macmillan.
14. * *Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch*, by Alice Hegan Rice. Century.
15. *The Second Violin*, by Grace L. Richmond. Burt.
16. * *Heidi*, by Johanna Spyri. Ginn.
17. * *Jeremy*, by Hugh Walpole. Doran.
18. * *Snow-Bound*, by John Greenleaf Whittier. Houghton.
19. * *The Swiss Family Robinson*, by Johann D. Wyss. Ginn.
20. * *The Widow O'Callaghan's Boys*, by Gulielma Zollinger. McClurg.

CHAPTER III

THE SCHOOL AND EDUCATION

Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged. — ORDINANCE OF 1787

SECTION I. HOW WE LEARN

Instincts. All animals have instincts. Instinct makes a dog run after a cat, and a kitten creep upon a mouse. Instinct causes the robin to fly south in the fall and come north in the spring. Instinct leads the beaver to construct a dam, the oriole to build a nest, the lion to prepare a den.

Instincts are inborn; they work unconsciously. We bring them with us when we come into the world, for an instinct is an inherited impulse to act in a certain way when something happens to us. Our desire to play together, our practice of imitating one another, and our tendency to fight are all instincts.

Control of instincts. Instincts belong to us in much the same way as our eyes, ears, and noses. But, unlike parts of the body, instincts can be changed or controlled by events that occur after birth. A dog can be trained to play with a cat, a lion to perform in a circus, and an elephant to pile up lumber, although all such acts are contrary to instinct. Organs in the body, however, cannot be changed by any amount of training. The heart cannot be taught to breathe, or the eyes to hear, or the nose to see, no matter how great a need may arise for such activities.

Instincts can be brought under control only when an animal is able to profit by experience. A dog naturally walks on four legs, but through rewards or punishments

it can be trained to walk on its hind legs. In such case experience modifies instinct.

Some of the lower creatures, however, do not learn from what happens to them. A moth, for example, on seeing a lighted candle, starts at once toward the flame. When its wings are burned it goes back into the darkness, but a second sight brings a return. A moth continues to fly back and forth in this manner until the candle is taken away or the moth destroys itself. In this instance instinct leads to death. The actions of a moth are purely instinctive. It perishes because it cannot learn. Utterly dependent on inherited impulses, it knows no more on the day of its death than when it first saw the light of the sun. Experience means nothing to a moth.

CONTRARY TO NATURE

Pussy's instinct to devour mice has been here overcome by training, while the mice in turn seem to have forgotten their instinctive fear of cats.

It is different with the higher animals. A newly hatched chick will peck at and swallow any small object which attracts its attention, but in a few days it learns the difference between bread crumbs and white pebbles, juicy worms and colored yarn, fat bugs and hard buttons. At first a chick has no more fear of a bee with power to sting than of a house fly with nothing more dangerous than a buzz, but a chick's instincts are soon modified by its experiences. In this way it becomes educated.

Meaning of education. What, then, is necessary in order to learn? What is education?

Education is an inner change. When no change occurs within, no education takes place. We learn only when we benefit from what happens to us, when we do not repeat mistakes, when we can do a task better the second time than we could do it the first, when our instincts become modified by experience. The test of education is conduct.

Importance of youth. The higher animals employ the youth of their offspring as a time for education. Bears teach their cubs how to dig for roots, how to find grubs, and how to swim. Sparrows tempt their young into the air by offering them food. Hawks and eagles push the young birds off the nest and then quickly dart under them to break their fall.

ELEPHANT CARRYING TIMBER

The instinct of an elephant is to roam care-free in the jungle, but he can be educated to do useful work for man.

What is true of birds and beasts is even more true of human beings. Parents use childhood and youth the world around for education, because learning then takes place most easily. At birth we are the most helpless, ignorant, and dependent of creatures. The brain and nervous system as well as the bones are at that time plastic and flexible and, like soft clay, can be readily impressed and molded. Moreover, since as boys and girls we are not able to do much work, we can give our entire time and energy to developing our minds and bodies during the very period of life when such training is most effective.

Not only have we the power to profit from our own experiences like the higher animals, but, unlike them, we can also learn from what other people have discovered in former times and in other lands. Through our greater capacity to learn and our longer opportunity for learning we have become the rulers of the world in which we live.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Tell about an animal which you once saw teaching its young.

2. Which is more teachable, a cat or a dog? Give facts supporting your answer.

3. Was Abraham Lincoln an educated man? Give reasons for your answer. Tell three ways by which you can recognize an educated person.

4. How is reading a means of education? How is travel?

5. Tell about the education of some famous person in whom you are interested.

6. *Reports for volunteers:* Prepare a short talk describing the education of boys and girls by one of the following peoples: American Indians; Spartans or Athenians; Chinese or Japanese; French, Germans, or English (see book list).

SECTION II. WHY WE NEED THE SCHOOL

Two roads to learning. We can learn only through what happens to us, but things happen to us in two distinct ways. If we eat too much mince pie we shall discover that the excess brings pain; if we ask our parents how much pie we should eat, we can learn the same truth without the pain. The first method of learning is without plan; the second is systematic. By the first, we learn unexpectedly; by the second, we learn intentionally. In the one, education results from chance; in the other, education comes from purpose. The first is informal; the second is formal.

Comparison of formal and informal education. What we learn informally usually makes a more lasting impression than that which comes to us through formal methods. The boy who has cut his finger is likely to handle a knife more cautiously than the lad who has merely been told that a sharp blade needs to be used with care. But in spite of its

JUDGING HORSES

In a few years no one will be able to get the better of these boys in a horse trade.

advantages informal education suffers from three great defects: it includes only those experiences that happen to come; it neglects almost everything that other people have learned; it requires the doing of things long after they have lost educative value.

A boy who works in a bank, for example, sees only those phases of banking that fall within his work. He has slight opportunity to learn about banking methods in other

communities, and he knows little about the operations of his own bank outside the department in which he works. He goes on for months, sometimes for years, carrying messages, filing papers, and balancing pass books long after he has learned all that such activities can teach him about

LEARNING TO SEW

These girls not only study history, science, and mathematics, but they also receive practical training in household arts. What other pictures in this chapter show a somewhat similar kind of education?

banking. A student in a good commercial course, on the other hand, learns about different kinds of banks, covers all phases of banking, and usually spends no more time on one detail than is necessary to master it; he then turns his attention to something else.

Examples of formal education. Because of its wastefulness, informal education is generally regarded as less effective than formal education. As a result, people of all races and

of all times have used formal methods to educate their children and to pass on the learning of the past.

In the Indian tribes of North America the men taught the boys how to handle the bow and arrow, how to follow a trail through the forest, and how to trap wild animals. The warlike Spartans had military camps in which they taught their children to run, march, hurl the discus, throw the javelin, and wield the sword. The cultured Athenians trained their sons in music, poetry, wrestling, boxing, and military tactics; their education included both mind and body.

The school and its methods. The chief agency of formal education today is the school. Here, by means of courses of study, gymnasiums, athletic fields, and laboratories, you are provided experiences that will strengthen your minds and bodies, improve your health, and increase your capacity for enjoyment.

In early American schools the textbook was the only means of instruction. Doubtless, if one of the Puritan boys could enter a school of the present day, he would be amazed at the various and pleasant methods of education now employed. In addition to regular class work most schools provide pupil activities of various kinds. They maintain papers and magazines to give both practice in writing and opportunities to serve the school. They have literary societies and debating clubs to furnish occasions for free oral expression and to give training in citizenship. They provide parties and picnics to help to develop school spirit and social courtesies. To cultivate originality and self-reliance, they welcome projects and recitations planned and carried out by the pupils. Such are some of the ways by which modern schools try to prepare their pupils for greater usefulness in community life.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention three things that you have learned through informal education; three you have learned by formal education.

2. Is formal education needed more by a city child or a country child? Give reasons.

3. Does the home educate by formal or informal methods? Give examples.

4. Name three important activities outside of school which give experiences that have educative value.

5. Tell two things you can learn in a school club that you cannot learn so well in a regular classroom.

6. Name a club you would like to see established in your school. Explain the educational value the club would have.

SECTION III. WHAT EDUCATION DOES FOR US

Aims. Whether education is worth while depends upon our aims and the extent to which we realize them. In the past each tribe or nation used the kind of education that it thought would best fit children to do their part in the community. The Indians tried to make hunters and warriors of their sons; the Spartans and Romans endeavored to form soldiers; the Puritans aimed to develop God-fearing, industrious men and women. Each people accomplished its aim in large degree. Now what should our education do for us today? What are our present needs? What are our aims?

Earning a living. In the first place education should aid one in earning a living. It should serve as a tool in gaining self-support. Its importance will appear from an illustration.

A few years ago a scientist tried an interesting experiment with a hungry monkey. Fixing a long glass tube upright in the monkey's cage, he dropped a banana within the tube. In the sight of the monkey he then took a sharp-pointed stick, put it down the tube, and lifted out the

BOYS AT WORK

SCHOOL SHOP

This school shop, which cost $40,000, was built by the students of the Weymouth (Massachusetts) High School. The upper picture shows the boys at work; the lower view, the completed structure.

banana. After repeating the act several times, he laid the sharp-pointed stick on the floor of the cage and ordered the monkey to be released.

What did the monkey do? Dashing to the tube, he tried to get the banana by biting through the glass, by reaching down the tube, and by clawing about it. He paid no attention to the sharp-pointed stick. Once more the scientist picked up the stick and lifted the banana out of the tube, and again the monkey was released only to repeat his former unsuccessful efforts. And so the test went on; but no matter how often the experiment was repeated the monkey would not use the stick.

Now education is very much like the sharp-pointed stick. As the latter was of value in securing the banana, so education is of service in helping young people to obtain positions that pay well; for it prepares them to do skilled work.

Unfortunately boys and girls are sometimes like the monkey. They, too, often ignore the stick and make right for the banana, — the banana being a job that pays a few dollars a week. Boys sometimes leave school to earn a little money by selling newspapers, carrying messages, or driving delivery wagons. Girls occasionally drop out of school to earn small sums as clerks in five-and-ten-cent stores, or as office girls for lawyers or dentists.

And the result? Low pay and slight progress. Boys and girls who quit school to go to work can usually secure only jobs that require little if any training. Such positions as a rule have no future. At the end of ten or fifteen years a worker is generally little farther on than he was at the beginning. Moreover, when hard times come, the unskilled laborer is the first to lose his job. An educated person, on the other hand, usually advances steadily in position and earning power as time passes. According to a recent investigation the average income of an untrained man is $1200 a year; that of a high-school graduate is $2200; that of a college graduate is $6000. Up to the age of sixty the entire

earnings of the three classes of workers are estimated at $45,000, $78,000, and $150,000. The figures indicate, therefore, that a high-school education has a cash value of $33,000 and a college education a cash value of $105,000.

From the standpoint of dollars and cents, then, education pays. Training is necessary to do the complex tasks

YOUNGEST SYMPHONY ORCHESTRA

This orchestra, consisting of one hundred high-school boys, is being led by Walter Damrosch, formerly conductor of the New York Symphony Orchestra.

required in important positions, and skilled workers are usually in demand. Before dropping school to go to work, get a sharp-pointed stick. Don't be like the monkey!

Enriching life. But the earning of money is not the only value of education. We need food for our heads and for our hearts as well as for our stomachs. We do not live by bread alone.

A talented and cultured woman had as her guest one day

a wealthy manufacturer of high-class leather goods. Like a good hostess, she did her best to carry on the conversation and skillfully brought up all sorts of subjects, but without success. She talked on literature and got no reply; she tried art with the same result; she introduced politics only to receive "yes" and "no" for answers. Similar responses came when she introduced science, religion, and music. At last, when she was almost at the end of her resources, he turned to her and said, "Madam, try leather; that's my line."

An elderly gentleman and an old lady were standing on the platform of the railway station in a village in western Kansas. Suddenly a little poodle dog dashed after the departing train, barking furiously. Said the old lady, "I wonder if he'll catch it." Said the elderly gentleman, "I wonder what he'll do with it if he does catch it."

Our education should enable us to know what to do with a living after we earn it. The school should enrich our days so that, when leisure moments come, we shall have more to talk about than leather, — or weather. Education should broaden our interests, enrich our conversation, widen our sympathies, and enlarge our world.

Service. But the chief value of education is to fit us for service. Depending on one another in countless ways, we need to learn how to work together so as to be able to perform with success the various activities in community life. In order that we may do our part well we need to be able to support ourselves and those who depend on us, to use our leisure time profitably, to cherish high ideals, and to form right habits. We need to know how to serve. To enable boys and girls to live helpfully in the community, the school should give instruction and training in health, work, citizenship, the profitable use of leisure time, and the formation of right ideals and habits.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention three ways in which your school is preparing you for service.

2. Tell a true story showing the money value of an education. Why do uneducated workers usually receive low wages?

3. Is your world larger than it was a year ago? Explain. Will it be still larger a year hence? Give reasons.

4. Name a useful public servant in your community or state. Find how his ability to serve was increased by schooling.

5. Name the subjects that are of most value in preparing you to earn a living; to enjoy living; to be of service. Give reasons in each instance.

SECTION IV. HOW TO GET THE MOST OUT OF SCHOOL

Show school spirit. After a famous battle fought almost six centuries ago, the victors found on the field of conflict the helmet of King John of Bohemia, bearing the words *Ich dien*, "I serve." Inspired by the courage of the old blind king who had died fighting bravely in the thick of the battle, young Edward of England, the Black Prince, adopted the device as his own. From that far-off day to this the phrase "I serve" has been a motto of the heir to the British throne.

If you would make the most of school you must have the same ideal; for in school, as in life, the highest satisfaction is in giving, not getting. The boy or girl who thinks first of the school, who is proud of its good name, who aids any enterprise for its benefit, who sacrifices time and personal pleasure for its welfare, will find school a delight and its memory a lasting satisfaction.

Such a pupil has the finest sort of school spirit, for school spirit consists not so much in cheering a team on to victory or even in backing it in times of defeat as in being loyal to its ideals and purposes. School spirit is not noise; it is a

way of thinking and feeling and acting. School spirit shows itself in pride in the appearance of the school and in thoughtful care of its property. Pupils who have true school spirit are considerate of schoolmates and teachers and enthusiastically support all school activities.

Go in for athletics. An American student attending Oxford University, England, a few years ago was greatly

GIRLS PLAYING HOCKEY

These girls are rounding out their school life by going in for athletics.

surprised, on going to the athletic field to play in a game of football, to find no spectators. "Where is the crowd?" he asked. "Crowd?" came the reply; "you mean — the other students?" "Yes." "Why, they're all playing their own games." And so it was. For in an English school practically every student goes in for some sport.

It should be so in America. Soon after you enter school, decide what branch of sport appeals to you most. You should, of course, for mere fun if for no other reason, take

part in some athletic activity in addition to the physical training required by the school. Enter into athletics wholeheartedly, win or lose. Follow the suggestions given by the students of one school to incoming pupils:

Be a good sport — play the game for the sake of the game and win if you can. If you can't win — lose like a sport. Don't crab — the other fellow is just as square as you are. Every Skokie fellow wants to do the right thing, just as you do. It doesn't matter whether you have ever played before — you will never learn any

PLAY THE GAME

In play, in study, in living, give the best you have. "Don't flinch, don't foul, but hit the line hard."

younger. It doesn't matter how clumsy you think you are — there is always someone who is clumsier. If you muff the ball, no one will laugh at you, because Skokie players are good sports, and everyone is ready to help everyone else.

Support intellectual activities. Take part, also, in some intellectual activity. Go in for debating or public speaking. Try to write for the school paper or magazine. Join a literary society, a travel club, or a musical organization. By doing what you can to help such enterprises you will not

only show true school spirit, but you will also form friendships that will last for a lifetime. No sensible pupil, of course, will overdo school activities. The wisest plan is to center on one or at most two enterprises, not to scatter your energies over a large number.

Master your lessons. In your eagerness to take part in school activities and to make friends, do not forget that the main business in school, after all, is to master your work.

To get the most out of school, learn how to study to the best advantage. Master your lessons thoroughly, but in the least possible time. Do your own work, asking for help only when you cannot go on without assistance. Do not waste time in dawdling or in looking aimlessly about. Tackle your work with a will. Do not allow yourself to be distracted from the task at hand. Think over what you have studied. Test yourself.

How, then, can you get the most out of school? First, by thoroughly mastering your lessons; second, by going in for athletics; third, by helping to carry on such activities as public speaking, debating, music, or the school paper; fourth, by putting the interests of the school before your own interests. He gets the most out of school who puts the most into it. To alter slightly the familiar lines,

> For life is the mirror of king and slave,
> 'Tis just what we are and do;
> Then give to the school the best you have
> And the best will come back to you.

Summary. Education depends on one's ability to learn from experience. This ability is greatest in childhood and youth, since at that time the mind is most easily impressed. The school is the chief agency to provide educative opportunities. It grew up in our country in colonial days and almost from the first has been controlled and supported by the people. Today everyone who wants an education can obtain it. The school exists to provide training that will

help boys and girls to support themselves, to enjoy life, and to become useful members of the community. For their instruction it furnishes courses of study, physical training, means of recreation, and pupil organizations. To get the most out of school, master your lessons, take part in athletics, support school activities, and show true school spirit.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Are you getting the most out of school? Answer after re-reading the paragraph beginning at the middle of page 68.

2. Mention three ways by which the pupils in your school show true school spirit. Suggest an additional way.

3. List the athletic activities that are open to members of your class. Check the ones in which you now take part. What pupil activities aside from athletics go on in your school? Check those in which you participate.

4. Suggest one athletic sport and one intellectual activity you would like to see added to those now provided in your school. Be able to tell two ways in which each has educative value.

5. What is your greatest difficulty when you study? Suggest methods for overcoming it. Can you do anything to make an uninteresting study interesting? Explain.

6. How may a person in your community continue his education if he is unable to go through high school or college?

THINGS TO DO

1. List the various means of education in your community.

2. Collect tributes to education that you find in your reading. Choose a committee to select the ten best tributes and copy them on the blackboard or use them in posters. Learn the tribute that you like the best.

3. Bring to class newspaper or magazine clippings showing the value or the cost of education. Post the most interesting items on the bulletin board.

4. Organize into committees to write a booklet about your school, each committee preparing one chapter.

5. Suggest ways of beautifying and improving your school building and school grounds. Form plans to put three of the most important suggestions into operation.

6. Find the total cost last year of the schools in your community. Estimate the expense for each pupil in the elementary schools and in the high schools. (See the last annual report of your superintendent of schools.)

7. Visit an up-to-date kindergarten and report several examples of both formal and informal education which you saw.

8. Ask one of the first-grade teachers to tell you how she teaches the little children to regard the welfare of the group.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "Mark Hopkins, President of Williams College," *Heroes of Progress*, 11–19.
2. "Maria Mitchell, Astronomer and Teacher," *ibid.*, 54–60.
3. "The Wild Beast Tamer," *Careers of Danger and Daring*, 293–347.
4. "Self Education," B. T. Washington, *ibid.*, 475–478.
5. * "The School of Experience," J. J. Davis, *ibid.*, 478–481.
6. "A Rhodes Scholar," L. A. Post, *ibid.*, 481–487.
7. "Awakening the Filipino," *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, 15–27.
8. * "The Library of Congress," *The American Government*, 343–354.
9. "The Smithsonian Institution," *ibid.*, 363–370.
10. "Winning the Knowledge that is Power," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, II, 827–833.
11. "Why I should go to College," *ibid.*, II, 828.
12. * "Tricks that Test your Intelligence," *ibid.*, IV, 1792–1793.
13. "Schools of the World and Their Work," *ibid.*, VII, 3138–3142.
14. "Secrets of Successful Study," *ibid.*, VIII, 3372–3374.
15. "The School and Education," *Readings in Community Life*, Part I, section 3.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. *When I was a Boy in Greece*, by George Demetrios. Lothrop.
2. * *At School in the Promised Land*, by Mary Antin. Houghton.
3. *From Cattle Ranch to College*, by Russell Doubleday. Grosset.
4. *Indian Boyhood*, by Charles A. Eastman. Doubleday.
5. *The Wonders of Instinct*, by Jean-Henri C. Fabre. Century.
6. *School of the Woods*, by William J. Long. Ginn.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. * *Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm*, by Kate Douglas Wiggin. Houghton.
2. *Understood Betsy*, by Dorothy Canfield. Holt.
3. *For the Honor of the School*, by Ralph H. Barbour. Appleton.
4. * *Glengarry School Days*, by Ralph Connor. Grosset.
5. *Cuore, a School Boy's Journal*, by Edmondo de Amicis. Crowell.
6. *Danny Fists*, by Walter Camp. Appleton.
7. * *Nicholas Nickleby*, by Charles Dickens. Macmillan.
8. * *The Hoosier School-boy*, by Edward Eggleston. Scribner.
9. * *The Hoosier Schoolmaster*, by Edward Eggleston. Scribner.
10. * *Tom Brown's School Days*, by Thomas Hughes. Ginn.
11. *The Varmint*, by Owen M. Johnson. Little.
12. * *Little Citizens*, by Myra Kelly. McClure.
13. *Emmy Lou, her Book and Heart*, by George M. Martin. Grosset.
14. *When Sarah went to School*, by Elsie Singmaster. Houghton.
15. *Jolly Good Times at School*, by Mary P. W. Smith. Little.
16. *Jeremy and Hamlet*, by Hugh Walpole. Doran.

Begin

CHAPTER IV

THE CHURCH AND RELIGION

I do not know of any adequate support for our government except that which comes from religion. — CALVIN COOLIDGE

SECTION I. WHAT RELIGION IS

Basis of religion. When Napoleon's officers one night expressed doubts concerning the existence of God, Napoleon is said to have pointed to the stars and asked, "Who made all these?" Certainly, to gaze into the starry sky and deny the existence of a Creator would be as unreasonable as to look into a watch and deny the existence of a watchmaker. Both the universe and the watch show by the order and regularity with which they move that they are the products of thought, not chance; of reason, not accident. As the poet Addison says:

The spacious firmament on high,
With all the blue, ethereal sky,
And spangled heavens, a shining frame,
Their great Original proclaim.
The unwearied sun from day to day
Does his Creator's power display,
And publishes to every land
The work of an Almighty hand.

Belief in the Deity has always been rooted deep in man's soul. As a wise king wrote long ago, only the fool says in his heart, "There is no God." Travelers and explorers have never found any tribe or people who did not believe in some kind of supreme being. The Greek historian Plutarch tells us that "it is possible to find cities without walls, without

letters, without kings, without wealth, without coin, without schools and theaters; but a city without a temple, or that practiceth not worship, prayer, and the like, no one ever saw."

Nature worship. The religious beliefs of primitive man were usually very simple. In all nature about him he saw living forms, with feelings, passions, and motives like his own, and with power to help or mar his happiness. To him there were spirits in the waves, the lightning, the desert, and the storm-clouds. Thinking then of sun and moon, wind and rain, river and mountain, as able to help him secure food, shelter, and safety, if he only gained their favor, or to bring want, suffering, and disaster if he aroused their anger, he sought by dance, sacrifice, and prayer to avoid their wrath and to win their aid and protection.

Ancestor worship. Combined with the worship of nature there was frequently the veneration of ancestors. The early Romans believed that when a member of the family died his spirit became a god with power to bless or harm the survivors. Unless the relatives placed food and drink before the family hearth and carried out religious ceremonies in honor of the departed, the spirit would return to torment those responsible for the neglect. One Roman writer tells of a spirit who haunted an old house so persistently as to frighten to death his unfaithful kinsfolk.

Religion and morality in early faiths. In early religious beliefs there was usually no relation between what people thought about the gods and what they believed about their duties to their neighbors. They saw little connection between religion and morality. To them *religion* concerned the gods alone; it dealt only with spirits and with man's duties toward them. *Morality*, on the other hand, seemed a different matter, for it concerned man's relations and duties to other men.

Nowadays we usually think of religion and morality as one, and it is hard for us to realize that there was ever a

time when the two were separate. But such was the case in nearly all early religions. Indeed, the characters of heathen gods and the teachings of heathen religions contained little to make men think of connecting religion and morality. The gods of the Greeks and Romans are often pictured as selfish, evil beings; the goddesses as vain and deceitful. Mercury is described as a thief and a liar and the god of thieves and liars. Mars is savage and brutal. Venus, although the goddess of love, is frequently cruel and spiteful.

THE GOD OF ANGER

The Javanese worship this God through fear of his mighty club.

In view of such facts it is not singular that the worship of the pagan gods was marked by cruel and shameful practices, for deities so wicked would naturally take delight in inhuman ceremonies. In southern India the disgusting four-armed goddess Kali was worshiped with human sacrifices; in Carthage little children were offered to the deities of the city; even the Greeks and Romans put boys and girls to death as tributes to their gods. Such deities could not inspire love in their worshipers or awaken people to deeds of kindness to one another. They set bad examples to men.

Religion of the Hebrews. Amid the almost universal cruelty that mars ancient religions appears one striking

exception. From early times the faith of the Hebrews is marked by a purity and nobility that make it very different from the barbarous religions that developed in the surrounding countries. In spite of occasional idolatry the Hebrews came to believe in a supreme, infinite God, who loved his people and who delighted in deeds of mercy and goodness. "What doth the Lord require of thee," inquires an old Hebrew prophet, "but to do justly, and to love kindness, and to walk humbly with thy God?"

Centuries later Jesus of Nazareth summed up the meaning of religion in even nobler words. In reply to a question as to which was the greatest commandment, he said: "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy mind and with all thy heart and with all thy soul, and thy neighbor as thyself; on these two commandments hang all the law and the prophets." With the passing of the years the unity of religion and morality, thus expressed, has been accepted by everyone as essential to all true religion.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Give two reasons why primitive people worshiped nature. Tell why they made little or no connection between religion and morality. Define religion; morality.

2. Why do primitive people usually believe in many gods? Tell about the religion of the ancient Egyptians. See Breasted's *Ancient Times*, 60–61, 91–93.

3. Find stories in Greek mythology which show what the Greeks thought of their gods and goddesses. See Gayley's *Classic Myths*, or Seignobos's *History of Ancient Civilization*, 112–118, 121–122.

4. Describe the religious beliefs of the American Indians. See Starr's *American Indians*; Elson's *History of the United States*, 26–27; or some other American history.

5. *Research problems for volunteers:*
   a. Ancestor worship in China.
   b. The religious beliefs of the Buddhists.

Section II. How Churches Developed

Churches unknown to early man. Ancient peoples knew nothing about churches, either as buildings or as religious organizations. The temples of the Greeks and the Romans were looked upon as homes for the gods rather than as places to which people might come to worship or to join in religious exercises.

Sacrifices to the gods and ceremonies in their honor were in charge of priests. Aside from bringing gifts and observing religious spectacles, the people had little to do with religious matters. The welfare of the tribe or nation was thought to depend upon the suitable worship of the gods. Hence, the government looked after religion in much the same way as our governments today look after education.

The first Christian churches. Religious organizations, such as we know at the present time, developed slowly. The early Christians were often hated and feared by their pagan neighbors, and were cruelly treated by the Roman government as dangerous to the peace and welfare of the empire. To encourage one another in the faith and to carry on their simple religious exercises, the Christians met in one another's homes, in caves, and even in underground burying places. From such meetings grew in time the organizations that we call churches.

Divisions among Christians. As the centuries passed, Christianity spread until, at last, the Emperor Constantine accepted the faith and made it the official religion of the Roman Empire (A.D. 325). From this time on, changes gradually took place in the beliefs, ceremonies, and organization of the early Christians. During the eighth century a quarrel between the Christians in eastern Europe and those in the West led to the establishment in eastern Europe of the Greek Orthodox Church. Seven hundred years later (1520) differences within the Roman Catholic Church, as the Church in western Europe was called,

resulted in the Protestant Reformation. Thus Christians became divided into the three great branches of today: Greek Orthodox, Roman Catholic, and Protestant.

The Protestant Reformation was based on the theory that everyone should have the right to worship God as he thought proper. Unfortunately, Protestants did not

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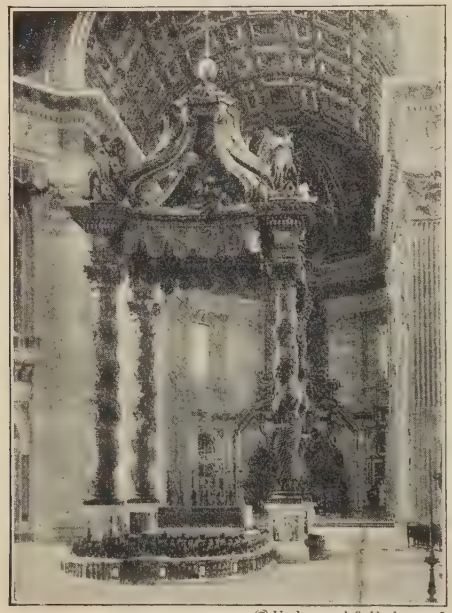
A HISTORIC CHURCH

Religion has played an important part in the history of our country from the very beginning. This old brick church at Jamestown dates back to the time of the early settlers in Virginia. The auditorium has been restored, but the venerable ivy-covered tower stands in large part as the colonists built it. What is the oldest church structure in your community?

always live up to their theory, and, instead of allowing each man to believe as he wished, sometimes mistreated those who differed from them. But in spite of persecution by both Protestants and Catholics the right of private judgment in religious matters, put forth by Martin Luther and John Calvin, lived on. As a result the differences of opinion that arose from time to time brought into existence, one by one, the numerous denominations of today.

Differences between churches. The differences that separate present-day churches are of three main kinds: creed, ritual, and government. Creed deals chiefly with beliefs about God; ritual includes the forms and ceremonies used in religious services; government is concerned with the appointment and duties of church officers and the management of church business. On all three points the various denominations hold different views.



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THE GREAT ALTAR OF ST. PETER'S CATHEDRAL

Many impressive ceremonies take place before this great altar. Here the Pope is crowned, and here, too, the cardinals and archbishops of the Roman Catholic Church receive the symbols of office.

Similarities between churches. The matters on which the churches agree, however, are more important than those on which they differ. All believe in God as a loving Father; all teach that men are brothers; all emphasize our duty to love and worship our Creator; all help to relieve distress and misery; all stand for the higher things in life.

Problems and tendencies. The usefulness of churches is often lessened by the divisions among them. Different denominations sometimes engage in petty quarrels that not only interfere with their work but also give religion itself a bad name. Denominational rivalry is found most frequently in villages, small towns, and rural communities.

A MODERN CITY CHURCH

In the very heart of the business section of Chicago rises the Temple Building, better known as the First Methodist Episcopal Church. It is over twenty stories high, but the church auditorium occupies only a small part of the interior, the rest of the space being used for offices. On close approach the structure is like any other skyscraper, but from a little distance the graceful spire can be seen, by day or night, lifting its cross four hundred and fifty feet above the surging crowds in the streets below.

Here a half-dozen feeble churches often struggle to survive in a neighborhood barely able to support one. In a single rural community sixteen churches existed within a radius of three miles; in another, fifty-two churches could be counted from a single belfry. When so numerous in a small area, churches often engage in contests for members and funds and fail to serve the community properly.

Fortunately, movements toward unity have in recent years lessened rivalry between the denominations. Community churches, formed by the union of several denominations, are common in cities and have begun to appear in rural neighborhoods. Various denominations often join in good-citizenship movements and in missionary enterprises. Ministerial associations and clubs have drawn the pastors in a community together, and the Federal Council of Churches tends to unify religious work in the country as a whole.

Prominent among the influences promoting friendship among churches are organizations like the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus, and the Salvation Army. Such organizations are offshoots of the Church and are composed largely of its members and are supported warmly by its officers.

The government and the churches. All churches in the United States are on an equal legal footing. All are regarded as private societies formed in accordance with law. All have an equal right to conduct their services as they think proper, provided only that the services are peaceful and moral in character. No church is connected with the government, for the Constitution provides that "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof" (Amendment I). The policy of America is "A free church in a free state."

The government treats the churches much as it does other private organizations. The only important difference it makes between religious, charitable, or educational insti-

tutions and other private societies is to free the former from paying taxes on property and income used directly for religious, charitable, or educational purposes. Churches, therefore, are not required to pay taxes on church buildings, hospitals, or schools; they must, however, pay taxes on property used in business.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Give an instance in American history showing how missionary zeal resulted in exploration.

2. Why did people in former times persecute those who disagreed with them in religion?

3. *Research problems for volunteers:*

a. In what respects were churches more influential in colonial days than at present? In what respects did they have less influence? See Alice M. Earle's *Home Life in Colonial Days*, 364–387.

b. Can the legislature of your state legally prevent you from worshiping God as you think right? See your state constitution.

Section III. Why we Need Churches

Aid to right living. Why do we need churches? What is their work? How do they help the community? The answers to these questions will enable us to understand why most people do not care to live in a neighborhood that has no churches.

In the first place, the Church helps us to live right. It inspires us to act justly and to love kindness. It teaches that true religion consists of what we *do*, as well as of what we *believe*. Its services help us to become better citizens, for most of us, as someone has said, are like clocks: we need to be wound up now and then in order to stay true to our good intentions. Busy much of the time at play or at work, our

desire to help others often becomes dull and feeble. The Church renews and strengthens our ideals. More than any other institution, it stresses the nobler things in life.

Work in education. In the second place, the Church gives religious education. Nowadays many homes provide little religious training, and the public schools are prevented by law from giving such instruction. The Church alone devotes itself to teaching the great truths of religion.

Modern education, it is worth noting, began in the Church. In medieval times religious ceremonies consisted almost entirely of such sacraments as baptism, the mass, and marriage, and to perform the sacraments properly the priest had to be able to read Latin. Accordingly, more than a thousand years ago, priests and monks conducted schools in which to train boys for the priesthood. To provide the more advanced education needed by the higher officers of the Church, bishops established schools about the cathedrals. From such schools grew many of the universities of Europe.

The interest in education which the Church showed in early times has never died. The original purpose, indeed, has widened, for the education now offered by the Church is no longer limited to boys who wish to become priests or ministers. Today all denominations support colleges and universities, while Catholics and Lutherans have parochial schools and in many communities also maintain high schools.

The Sunday school does a large part of the educational work of the Church. Founded one hundred and fifty years ago, church schools now exist in almost every country in the world. In their classes are enrolled over two million officers and teachers and more than twenty million pupils.

The influence of Sunday schools is recognized by all thinking people. A New York judge says: "Our crime is committed almost wholly by those whom the Sunday school does not reach. Of the thousands of cases before me during

the past sixteen years, only one has been actively connected with the Sunday school." A Brooklyn judge says that out of more than four thousand boys brought before him accused of wrongdoing, only three were members of a Sunday school at the time of their misdeeds and crimes.

A SUNDAY-SCHOOL CLASS

No doubt any of these children could tell you the story of David and Goliath or of Joseph and his coat of many colors. Bible stories occupy an important place in the religious education of little folks.

The Church does not limit its educational work to children. It also has classes for young men and young women and for older people as well. It often gives instruction in cooking and sewing to women and girls and provides special classes in English for immigrants. By such methods many who would never enter a church are brought under the influence of religion.

The religious and educational work of the Church reaches

far beyond the immediate neighborhood of a local organization. Devoted men and women carry its message of hope and cheer to the foreign sections of our cities, to the thinly populated regions of the United States, and to distant lands beyond the seas. Through home and foreign missions the Church helps people in all parts of the world, while

THE RETURN OF THE PRODIGAL

Among the many activities carried on within churches are classes in dramatics. This group of players is presenting the story of the prodigal son. Can you point out the father, the elder brother, and the prodigal himself?

through educational activities it enriches their lives and fits them for greater usefulness in their own communities.

Help to the suffering. A third important service of the Church is the help it gives to people in distress. It always responds quickly to calls for assistance from persons in want or pain. Years ago the churches sent food and clothing to the millions in India who were dying from famine. Since the World War the churches have given even greater assistance to starving people in Armenia, China, and Russia.

Recently the Red Cross has taken over most relief work, but it always has the warm assistance of the churches. People believe that the Church is moved only by the highest motives, and they are always ready to give generously when it asks for funds to help the poor, the sick, and the suffering.

Recreation and social gatherings. The Church, in the fourth place, furnishes both pleasant and profitable means of recreation. The small apartments and crowded tenements in which so many people live nowadays are poorly suited for recreation and social gatherings. Moreover, there are few homes, either in the city or in the country, that are able to provide facilities for the physical sports, the contests, and the exercise which all need and which all enjoy.

HELPING FLOOD SUFFERERS

These little fellows are receiving warm coats from the Red Cross to replace those which they lost during a flood.

Many churches do a great deal to provide recreation and entertainment for the people of the neighborhood. Besides the main auditorium, modern church buildings, especially in our cities, usually contain attractive clubrooms and parlors, well-equipped kitchens, reading rooms and libraries, lecture halls, gymnasiums, swimming pools, and bowling alleys. Instead of closing their doors six days a week, such churches

keep open the year round. Here the people of the vicinity, both young and old, become acquainted, join in social gatherings, enjoy wholesome amusement, and find a common home. Few activities of the Church are of greater service to the community than its provisions for recreation and social contacts.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Tell what your church does for the community. Mention two additional services that it might render.

2. Why are people who do not belong to any church usually unwilling to live in a community that has no churches? Why are they willing to give time and money to help church enterprises and activities?

3. Mention three things that the churches do now that they did not do when your father and mother were children.

4. Name ways in which religion has aided education; art; architecture; literature. Name two great works of art, two of music, and three of literature which have a religious theme.

Section IV. How to Help the Church

Join a church. The first way in which you can help the Church is by becoming a member. Only through the aid of those who voluntarily join its ranks can the organization exist.

In the Middle Ages people were born into the Church in much the same way that they are born today into the family or the nation. Shortly after birth they were baptized, a few years later they were confirmed, and for the remainder of their lives they usually attended its services. But church membership is now largely a voluntary matter, and no one can be forced to belong against his will. But if no one joins, the Church and what it represents must disappear, and, after all, few persons ever regret becoming members of the Church.

Attend religious services. Form the habit of going regularly to church and Sunday school. In the church you will form friendships, enjoy wholesome surroundings, and obtain inspiration and counsel that will prove helpful in times of trouble and temptation. There is no substitute for the Church. President Theodore Roosevelt said:

> I know that one can worship the Creator in a grove of trees, or by a running brook, or in a man's own house, just as well as in a church. But I also know as a matter of cold fact that the average man does not thus worship.
>
> He may not hear a good sermon at church. He will hear a sermon by a good man who, with his good wife, is engaged all the week in making hard lives a little easier.
>
> He will listen to and take part in reading some beautiful passages from the Bible. And if he is not familiar with the Bible, he has suffered a loss.
>
> He will take part in singing some good hymns.
>
> He will meet and nod or speak to good, quiet neighbors. He will come away feeling a little more charitably toward all the world; even toward those excessively foolish young men who regard church-going as a soft performance.

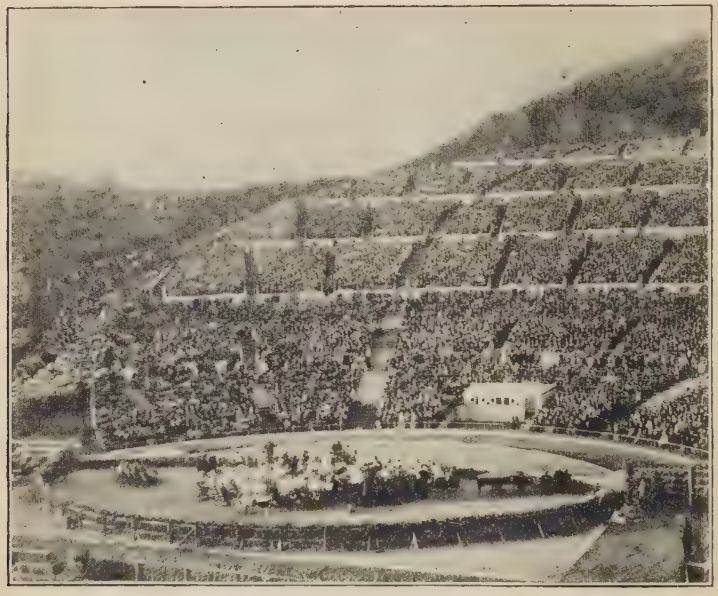
Help to support the church. Money is required to run a church. Funds are needed for heat, light, repairs, insurance, janitor service, and the salaries of those who give their time to religious work. The social activities and enterprises that the church conducts also are expensive.

Few churches can meet their expenditures except through the voluntary contributions of their members and those who benefit by their services. You may not be able to give much, but give what you can. Help to support the church.

Take part in church activities. In few places is teamwork of greater value than in the church. Through the efforts of all, religious activities go forward. If a single member or attendant hangs back, the whole organization suffers.

Find something in the church, then, that you can do. Play in the orchestra of the Sunday school, or collect the

hymn books after the service, or distribute cards or circulars advertising church work, or help strangers to feel at home. You can always aid by joining in the group reading, the responses, and the songs. Help to carry on the work of the church by taking part in its activities.



EASTER SERVICES AT SUNRISE

Hollywood Bowl at Los Angeles, California, was filled with fifty thousand people when the sun rose on this Easter morning. In the foreground are the orchestra, the choir, and the minister.

Speak well of all churches. Be a loyal member and supporter of your own church, and help it in every way possible. But say no evil of other churches. We can love our own homes without speaking ill of the homes of others, and we can love our own churches and at the same time respect the churches to which other people belong.

In spite of differences in creed, ritual, and government, all churches have the same end in view. Even as their

spires all point toward the same skies, so their ceremonies, sermons, and songs, differ as they may, all lead to the same God. Speak well, then, of all churches, for all are engaged in the common task of making the world a better place in which to live.

Summary. No people or nation have ever been found who did not have some kind of religion. Among primitive tribes religious beliefs have usually consisted of the worship of nature and of ancestor worship and have been marked by little or no connection between religion and morality. An exception appears among the ancient Hebrews; here we find a union of religious conceptions and moral duties similar to that which is accepted by all churches today.

Modern churches, while differing in creed, ritual, and government, have the same great end in view — the worship of God and the service of man. All do much the same kind of work: all try to inspire men to lead upright lives, all furnish religious education, all assist persons in want, all provide wholesome recreation. We can help the churches — and ourselves — by joining their ranks, attending their services, contributing to their support, and taking part in their activities. We need the churches, and the churches need us.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention three ways in which boys and girls can be of service in the churches in your community.

2. John Bunyan said, "Religion is the best armor in the world, but the worst cloak." What did he mean?

3. Does the presence of churches have any effect on the value of real estate in the vicinity? Explain. What is "real estate"?

4. Mention two ways in which the work of the churches in your community could be improved.

5. Compare the services of the church to the community with those rendered by the school.

6. *Reports for volunteers:* What work have missionaries sometimes done in addition to teaching religion? Tell about the life of one of the following: Francis Xavier, Father Marquette, David Livingstone, John G. Paton, S. Hall Young.

THINGS TO DO

1. Make a map of your community showing the location of all the churches. Use a different color to represent each denomination.

2. Find the membership of the churches in your neighborhood and the average attendance during the past three months. Make a circle to represent the entire population and mark off in colors those portions that will properly represent the number who are church members and the number who are church attendants.

3. Make a drawing or graph to indicate the membership and attendance at the Sunday schools in your community as compared with the total population.

4. List three ways to increase church membership and church attendance in your community.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "The Oeh-da, the Good Spirit and the Bad Spirit," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 43–46.
2. "The Development of Ideals and Aspirations," *ibid.*, 449–460.
3. "Sweet Day of Rest," E. C. Hall, *The Worker and his Work*, 237–246.
4. "The Great-Hearted Hero of Labrador," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, IV, 1541–1542.
5. * "The Great Missionary Explorer of Africa," *ibid.*, V, 2033–2035.
6. * "The Pilgrim Quest for Religious Freedom," *ibid.*, V, 2175–2178.
7. "The Church and Religion," *Readings in Community Life*, Part I, section 4.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Essay

1. *The Life of General William Booth, the Founder of the Salvation Army*, by Harold Begbie.
2. * *Bible.* Genesis, Psalms, Mark, Luke.

3. *The Classic Myths in English Literature*, by Charles M. Gayley. Ginn.
4. *Stories of the Saints*, by Grace Hall. Doubleday.
5. * *A Student in Arms*, by Donald Hankey. Dutton.
6. * *Saints and their Stories*, by Peggy Webling. Stokes.
7. *Hall Young of Alaska*, by S. Hall Young. Revell.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. * *Ben Hur*, by Lew Wallace. Harper.
2. *The Little Minister*, by James M. Barrie. Grosset.
3. *The First Christmas Tree*, by Henry van Dyke. Scribner.
4. *The Circuit Rider*, by Edward Eggleston. Grosset.
5. *The End of the World*, by Edward Eggleston. Grosset.
6. * *The Sky Pilot*, by Ralph Connor. Grosset.
7. *Black Rock*, by Ralph Connor. Grosset.
8. * *The Pilgrim's Progress*, by John Bunyan. Ginn.
9. *John Halifax, Gentleman*, by Dinah M. M. Craik. Burt.
10. *The Great Stone Face*, by Nathaniel Hawthorne. Houghton.
11. *The Recessional*, by Rudyard Kipling. Doubleday.
12. *The Legend Beautiful*, by Henry W. Longfellow. Houghton.
13. * *The Vision of Sir Launfal*, by James Russell Lowell. Houghton.
14. *Aunt Jane of Kentucky*, by Eliza C. Hall. Little.
15. *The Cloister and the Hearth*, by Charles Reade. Dutton.
16. *Where Love Is There God Is Also*, by Leo N. Tolstoy. Dutton.
17. *Abraham Davenport*, by John Greenleaf Whittier. Houghton.
18. * *The Eternal Goodness*, by John Greenleaf Whittier. Houghton.

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CHAPTER V

THE NEIGHBORHOOD AND THE COMMUNITY

Strong, that no human soul may pass
Its warm, encircling unity,
Wide, to enclose all creed, all class,
This shall we name Community.

Service shall be that all and each,
Aroused to know the common good,
Shall strive, and in the striving reach
A broader human brotherhood.

SARAH COLLINS FERNANDIS

SECTION I. HOW COMMUNITIES BEGAN

The clan and the tribe. The first neighborhood was probably a large family composed of the father and mother, the sons and daughters, their husbands, wives, children, and grandchildren, and perhaps a few servants or slaves. Such a family is described in the Bible in the story of Jacob and his sons, their wives, children, and servants. Here a group of people lived close together, busy with flocks and herds, engaged in common tasks, sharing one another's problems, difficulties, and dangers.

With the increase of members in a clan, as a group related by blood is often called, the community gradually becomes a tribe. Occasionally a number of clans unite to form a tribe. The words "clan" and "tribe" are not very exact in meaning, and the difference between them is a matter of no great consequence. In all such groups the members live near one another, work together, and form a community united by common interests and faced by common problems.

Teamwork in primitive tribes. Dangers from wild beasts and savage foes force the members of a tribe to act together. Their united efforts are needed to defend the community from lions and tigers, to kill deer or buffaloes, and to defeat hostile tribes.

All the men join in the hunt to secure food, and all take part in war to protect the tribe from enemies. The women, likewise, all help in the rude farming; all weave baskets and mats; all look after the children and prepare the food.

Food, clothing, and tools may as a rule be used by everyone who belongs to the tribe. Private property is almost unknown. In plenty or in famine the community usually share alike. The members of a primitive tribe would not be able to understand how anyone could suffer for food, clothing, and shelter if others in the same community had an abundance. When a South Sea Islander first heard about the poor in London, he exclaimed: "How is it? No food! No friends! No house to live in! Where *did* he grow? Are there no houses belonging to his friends?"

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PRIMITIVE WARRIORS

Leopard skins, ostrich feathers, shields of buffalo hide, to say nothing of enormous hats, make up the dress-parade costumes of these East African warriors.

Control by the tribe. The clan, or tribe, exercises strict control over its members to guard the welfare of the group; for if each member is allowed to do just as he pleases, all may be endangered. Hence, even in the smallest details of life, the members of a primitive tribe live under strict rules, follow the same customs, and observe the same practices.

A PRIMITIVE COMMUNITY HOME

In this thatch-covered structure many families live together. They secure their food, clothing, and supplies from a common storehouse.

Many examples of tribal custom and control can be given. All the members of some tribes tattoo themselves in rows or rings; all the members of other tribes use semicircles or squares; others employ figures of birds, animals, and insects. In South Australia, girls willingly submit to having rows of long, deep gashes cut across their backs with a sharp, jagged shell; such is the tribal custom, and no self-respecting maiden cares to be without a well-carved back. Some primitive communities do not permit brothers

to speak to sisters, or husbands to wives. At a council of war the early Romans permitted no man to cross his legs or clasp his hands, because they believed that such an act would bring defeat. We do not always know why the tribe requires or forbids certain acts, but in every instance the safety of the community lies behind the regulation.

The person who breaks a tribal rule suffers severely, for a primitive community knows how to enforce its laws. If the offender does not die from fear at having broken a taboo, as such a rule is called, he soon disappears in a way known only to the rulers of the tribe and to those appointed to carry out its vengeance. The very mystery of his fate adds to the awe and terror inspired by the taboos.

A CARVED BACK

Members of primitive tribes often submit to torture that they may be adorned with scars like these, which they consider marks of beauty.

Primitive community life. In a primitive tribe all the men, except the medicine man or wonder-worker, join in the hunting, fishing, and fighting, and all the women take part in the rude farming and the industrial arts. Trading of goods occurs very seldom among primitive tribes; as a rule they have few friendly dealings of any kind with one another. Progress is almost impossible in a primitive neighborhood, because no one is allowed to do anything contrary to tribal traditions.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name three important features of community life among primitive peoples.

2. Mention two ways in which life in your community resembles life in a primitive tribe.

3. Suggest reasons for the tribal rules mentioned in this section.

4. What is the best feature of community life among primitive peoples? What is its worst feature? In each case give reasons for your answer.

Life of Daniel Boone

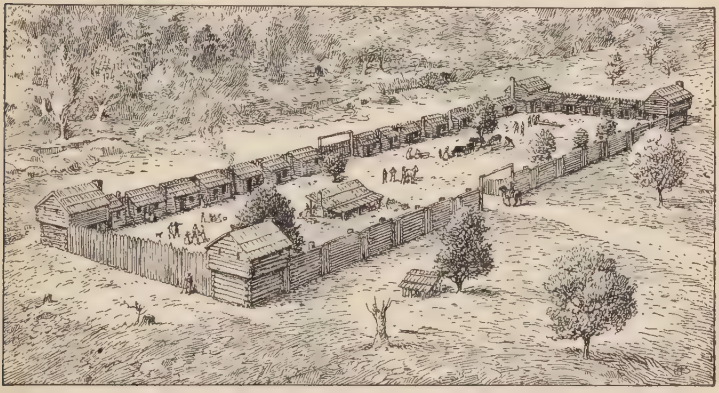
Section II. How a Frontier Community Developed

The beginnings of Boonesborough. In the autumn of 1775 a small company of people were slowly and cautiously making their way to the West along the rough Wilderness Trail. At the head of the little band walked a tall, well-knit man clad in deerskin, moccasins, and coonskin cap. Round his waist was a leather belt in which were a tomahawk and a hunting knife; from his shoulders hung a powderhorn and a bullet-pouch; in his hand he carried a long flintlock rifle. After him came several packhorses laden with bedding, clothing, and utensils. Twenty young men and boys, a woman, two girls, and a number of small children completed the company. Daniel Boone, his family, and a few friends were on their way to the blue-grass region of Kentucky.

Trained as a boy to handle rifle and hunting knife, this bold and skillful backwoodsman, when but a youth, had joined the unfortunate Braddock expedition. Here he had learned of the abundant game, the noble forests, the beautiful prairies, and the rich soil of Kentucky. In the spring of 1775 he had led a company of men across the mountains and had built a rude stockade at a place called, in his honor, Boonesborough. Leaving the men in

charge of the fort, he had then returned to his Carolina home. Now, six months later, with his family and a few friends, he was again westward bound, this time to establish the first home in the new settlement.

Advantages and drawbacks. Boonesborough was located on the south bank of the Kentucky River. Buffalo, deer, and wild turkeys, as well as wildcats and bears, abounded in the



THE FORT AT BOONESBOROUGH

Boonesborough, the first settlement in Kentucky, was founded by Daniel Boone. The walls of the fort were the back walls of the cabins, joined to one another by the stockade. The doors and windows of the cabins faced the interior of the inclosure. Note the overhanging story of the blockhouses at each corner. Describe the first settlement in your state.

neighborhood. Timber existed in abundance, the soil was fertile, the climate was pleasant, springs of water were plentiful.

Growth of Boonesborough. The superb hunting proved too strong a temptation at first for the men who had crossed the mountains with Boone in the spring of 1775. Days passed into weeks while they busied themselves with the pursuit of deer, bison, and beaver. But by constant effort Boone finally persuaded them to put up a rude fort. Some of the men also erected log cabins and most of them staked off land claims. Before Boone's family arrived, the

men had also planted several hundred acres in corn, set out some fruit trees, and introduced a few hogs, cows, and horses.

With the arrival of Mrs. Boone and the children, Boonesborough may be regarded as established. Not long afterwards other pioneers came with their families, the number of "clearings" increased, and population slowly but steadily grew. Let us now examine the chief features of the little settlement.

The fort and the Indians. In frontier communities the men all helped to build the fort. On the outlying "clearings" each settler erected a cabin to serve as a home for his family. When the Indians threatened attack, the inhabitants of the community with their cattle and horses hurriedly took refuge within the stockade, which was so well fortified that a few people could defend the structure against a host of enemies. Usually it could be captured only by surprise or by a large force employing fire or cannon. On more than one occasion the fort saved Boonesborough from destruction.

Frontier homes. Life in a frontier community was simple. Each family lived in a rough cabin built of logs, the cracks daubed with clay. Usually the cabin consisted of a single room, with dirt floor and a large open fireplace. A few three-legged stools for chairs, several rough wooden frames for beds, and a board on trestles for a table comprised the furniture. Dishes were frequently made of wood; forks, spoons, and cups, of iron or pewter; gourds and hard-shell squashes served as buckets and dippers.

Frontier trade. People in settlements like Boonesborough lived so far from Eastern markets that they had to make most of their utensils. The men were not only hunters, Indian-fighters, and farmers; they were also carpenters, smiths, tanners, Jacks-of-all-trades. Most of their crude farming implements, their tools, household furniture, and long flintlock rifles were the work of their own hands. Daniel Boone even learned how to make gunpowder.

The pioneers usually had to depend on the older settlements, however, for such articles as lead, gunpowder, and pepper. In the fall the furs, skins, and ginseng in the community were loaded upon packhorses, and a few of the pioneers took the long, dangerous journey over the mountains to the seacoast towns in the East. Occasionally flatboats, loaded with furs, whisky, and bacon, were floated down the river to New Orleans. In the East or the South, the backwoodsmen traded their goods for the articles which they found hard to make or to secure on the frontier.

Law and order. The settlers in Boonesborough and the vicinity were for the most part industrious and law-abiding. But the community also contained disorderly souls, — outlaws, river pirates, and ruffians who boasted that they were "half horse, half alligator." By rude but effective methods the pioneers gave such persons swift justice and, for serious offenses, severe punishment. As a rule, however, the community did not interfere in quarrels between man and man.

Community life in Boonesborough. Not long after Boonesborough was founded, an enterprising settler opened a store in a small log cabin, offering for sale gunpowder, lead, spices, and other goods. In a short time another settler built a gristmill. Growing traffic soon made a ferry profitable across the Kentucky River.

The religious needs of the little community were met at first by ministers who happened to be traveling from one settlement to another, preaching the gospel, baptizing children and adults, marrying the young people, and burying the dead. But before many years the settlers built a small church and secured a minister for the village. Not long afterwards the community employed a young settler from Virginia to conduct a school in the settlement.

Within a few years Boonesborough was united with other settlements in Kentucky under a state government. The legislature passed laws for the trial of criminals, the pro-

tection of game, the improvement of horses, and the punishment of persons guilty of profanity. Thus, as the community grew, the needs of the people led to the development of commerce, religion, education, and government.

Frontier life and primitive life. When we compare life in a frontier community like Boonesborough with life in a primitive tribe, we notice both striking likenesses and important differences. Dangers from savage foes cause the members of both communities to draw close together for protection. In each instance the people are willing to share food, clothing, and shelter with one another in case of need, but the practice is by no means so widely followed on the frontier as in the tribe; members of a frontier settlement are generally expected to provide for their own needs. A primitive tribe has few friendly dealings with other tribes; a frontier settlement, on the other hand, depends on distant communities for articles which it cannot produce.

In addition, unlike the tribe, a frontier settlement welcomes strangers and encourages immigration. Frontier folk are also keenly interested in other communities and in news from the outside world. Finally, although clannishness and prejudice appear at times in frontier settlements, there are few signs of the rigid control which is so universal in a primitive tribe. On the contrary, the most striking feature of frontier life, outside the duty of each settler to join in the common defense, is personal freedom. So long as he does not interfere with the rights of others, each pioneer can do largely as he pleases.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name five likenesses or differences in community life on the frontier and in a primitive tribe.

2. Find out what you can about the early history of your own community. Point out three ways in which the story resembles that of Boonesborough; three ways in which the story is different.

3. What was the best feature of community life in Boonesborough? What was its worst feature? Explain.

4. Do one of the following:

a. Suppose you had lived in Boonesborough. Write an account of one day's events.

b. Describe the sod houses in which homesteaders on the plains of the West sometimes live.

c. Imagine yourself a member of a primitive tribe. Write a story or a poem about your experiences.

5. *Reports for volunteers:* Tell about the settlement of one of the following places: Marietta, Ohio; Salt Lake City, Utah; Astoria, Washington; St. Augustine, Florida; Vincennes, Indiana; Green Bay, Wisconsin; Topeka, Kansas; Gary, Indiana; San Francisco, California. Compare with the settlement of Boonesborough and that of your own community.

Section III. How a City Community Developed

Decline of Boonesborough. If you try to find Boonesborough on a modern map of Kentucky you will not succeed, for the little frontier community disappeared long ago. Attracted by more fertile lands to the north and west, many of the original settlers, including Boone, left the region; better opportunities in business in newer communities caused others to migrate; malarial fever brought on by the neighboring swamps drove still others away.

The chief cause for the decline of Boonesborough, however, was the unfavorable location of the settlement. Situated in a region swarming with game and possessing rich soil, the site was ideal for a frontier community, but proved to be out of the way for business. Located on no important stream or body of water and remote from routes suitable for canals and railroads, Boonesborough saw neither Western products nor Eastern merchandise pass through its limits on their way to or from the markets of the world. As a result, the little settlement, after a period

of growth, grew smaller and smaller until, today, nothing is left of it but a romantic memory.

Causes for great cities. With few exceptions only settlements situated at a "break in transportation" become important cities. Wherever goods must be changed from

THE SKYLINE OF NEW YORK

What do you see in the picture that tells why New York has become the largest city in our country? The lofty tower in the background is the Woolworth Building, the highest skyscraper in the world.

land routes to water routes or from water routes to land routes, labor is needed for loading and unloading; warehouses must be built to store produce and merchandise; and quantities of supplies must be provided to meet the wants of the workers. Such activities cause many people to live within a small area, and, in consequence, a city develops.

If the region which the city serves as a gateway is rich in fertile lands, and is inhabited by an able, hard-working

people, the quantity of goods shipped in and out will be large and the city will become an important trade center. If the region also contains iron, coal, and timber, the community is likely to become a center of manufacturing as well as commerce and to develop into a great metropolis.

Thus, Pittsburgh became an important commercial and manufacturing center because it is situated at the forks of

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ST. LOUIS

The advantageous location of St. Louis on the Mississippi River in the midst of a rich agricultural region explains in large part its importance as a great city.

the Ohio, where land and water routes meet, and because it is the center of one of the richest coal and iron regions in the world. St. Louis became a great city because it is located on the Mississippi, where land and water routes cross, and because it lies in the midst of a magnificent agricultural district. In like manner San Francisco and Seattle in the West, New Orleans in the South, and New York, Boston, and Baltimore in the East attained their present size because they are located at the meeting place

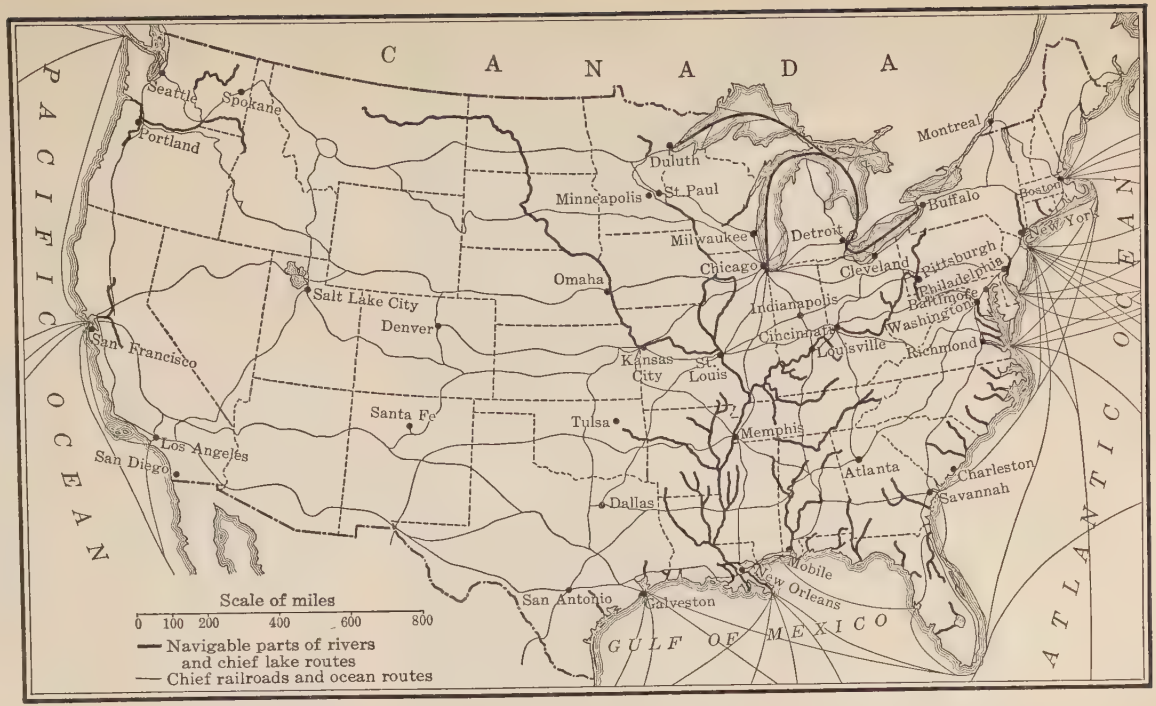
of important land and water routes and because they are convenient centers for manufacturing the raw materials which abound in the surrounding country.

Advantages of Chicago. Chicago is a good example of the way great cities develop. People who have heard the roar and rumble of "the Loop" — the business center of Chicago — find it hard to realize that where the fourth largest city in the world now stands, there was, less than a hundred years ago, only a village like Boonesborough, containing a rude fort, a small trading post, and a few log cabins.

The site had long been recognized as important. La Salle, one of the first of the early visitors, is reported to have said, "This will be the gate of empire, this the seat of commerce." Owing to Lake Michigan all travel by land from the Northwest to the East or in the opposite direction is forced to cross the site of Chicago. The short distance between the Desplaines River, which flows to the Mississippi, and the Chicago River, which empties into Lake Michigan, also makes the spot a convenient one for travel by water from the Southwest to the Northeast or from the Northeast to the Southwest. Moreover, the iron deposits of Michigan and the coal fields of Illinois and Indiana help to make the site a natural center for manufacturing.

Beginnings of the growth of Chicago. But in early days the Indians were hostile, and the French, who were the first white settlers, cared little for developing the region. Many years passed, therefore, before Chicago began to grow. As late as 1832 only one hundred and fifty people lived in the settlement. But the defeat that year of the Indian chief Black Hawk and the spread of the news of rich farm lands in northern Illinois and southern Wisconsin brought settlers by the thousands to occupy "the new Eden."

In the meanwhile Congress voted money to improve the Chicago harbor. Excitement grew in the village as the inhabitants talked of the day when a ship canal would



INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL CENTERS OF THE UNITED STATES

Can you explain the chief causes for the growth of five of our main industrial and commercial cities?

unite Lake Michigan with the Mississippi. During the summer of 1833 one hundred and fifty new cabins were built. When the first large vessel sailed into the new harbor the following spring the future of Chicago was assured. Within six months population increased to almost six

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THE HEART OF CHICAGO

Where these towering office buildings now stand, there was, less than one hundred years ago, only a marshy swamp. In the immediate foreground is the Chicago River. To the left, not visible in the picture, is Grant Park, the city's downtown playground, and just beyond lies Lake Michigan.

hundred. Dry-goods stores, drug stores, a number of blacksmith shops, a harness shop, a shoe store, a tavern, a frame church, and even a log jail were erected. By 1836 the inhabitants numbered four thousand, and town lots were selling at unheard-of prices.

The canal and the railroad. Some time later the canal was started, and in spite of difficulties was successfully brought to completion (1848). One week after the new waterway

was opened a vessel with a cargo of sugar passed through the city, bound for Buffalo from New Orleans. During the same period farseeing men, disregarding ridicule and opposition, had begun to build a railroad west from Chicago. So energetically did they push construction that the year which saw the opening of the canal witnessed also the completion of the railroad. With the help of the two new means of transportation, Chicago became within a few years the most important commercial and manufacturing center in the West. Before the century ended it was the second largest city in the United States and the fourth largest in the world.

The causes for the growth of Chicago are plain. Much of the farm produce sent East had to be unloaded from trains or canal boats at the city and reloaded on lake vessels; goods from Eastern factories bound for the West by way of Lake Michigan had to be transferred at the city to trains and canal boats. Warehouses were needed as places of storage. Laborers were in demand. The abundance of raw materials led to the building of factories for the production of goods previously shipped from the East. Thus, because of opportunities in shipping, manufacturing, and trade, Chicago grew. Similar facilities, with differences in detail, explain the progress of cities like Boston, New Orleans, St. Louis, San Francisco, Seattle, and New York.

Problems. Serious difficulties develop during the growth of a city. First there is the problem of health. Many diseases spread rapidly if people who suffer from them come in contact with their neighbors; food and milk, which come from outside the city, must be kept free from impurities; pure water is difficult to obtain; even the securing of pure air and sunlight is hard where factories, freight yards, and skyscrapers abound.

A second problem grows out of traffic needs. Unless people can reach their places of work quickly, they lose both time and energy and the community suffers in consequence.

The building of transportation facilities is expensive and often presents serious engineering problems. The control of traffic is even more difficult.

Protection from crime and fire is a third serious problem. Among any large number of people there are, unfortunately, a few who will not respect the rights of others. From the criminal class the community must protect itself by an able police force and by removing the causes that lead to crime. Fire, too, is a source of danger which concerns all. Building and fire regulations are necessary to prevent fires which may destroy the entire city.

REMOVING THE SNOW

A large city must spend thousands of dollars to clear the streets after every heavy snowfall.

Recreation forms another problem. The desire we all have for fun and for amusement leads at times to forms of recreation which not only injure those who take part in them, but are also dangerous to the community. Hence the community must provide safeguards against harmful amusements and, in addition, must furnish recreation that is both attractive and wholesome.

Problems of health, protection, transportation, and recreation arise in all communities. To solve these we must have government; for government is only an agency to meet human needs. Questions always arise as to what kind of government is best, who should serve as officers, and how community problems should be handled. Hence government, though an agency for dealing with community problems, itself presents problems that perplex the wisest.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name three factors that have helped to make your community. Which is of greatest importance?

2. What were the chief causes for the growth of Cleveland? Philadelphia? St. Louis? New Orleans? Los Angeles? Washington? Detroit? Denver? San Francisco? Minneapolis? Milwaukee? Baltimore? Look up one of these cities in the encyclopedia or in the books in the reading list (pp. 117–118).

3. What factors have made New York the largest city in America?

4. In 1860 Cincinnati was the largest city in the Middle West; St. Louis, the second; Chicago, the third. In 1900 Chicago was the leader, St. Louis had retained second place, and Cincinnati was third. How do you explain the change in rank?

5. Name another community that has declined like Boonesborough, and explain the causes of its decline.

6. Is the population of your community growing or declining? What causes the change? Is an increasing population always desirable for a community? Explain.

SECTION IV. HOW WE LIVE IN RURAL NEIGHBORHOODS

The city and the country. The city depends on the country, and the country depends on the city. People of the city secure food, materials for clothing, and many of the supplies for their mills and factories from the country. People of the country, in turn, obtain clothing, household furniture, and farm machinery from the city. Both kinds of communities face the common tasks of community life. The problems of the country differ from those of the city chiefly in matters of detail.

Recreation. One of the particular problems of the country is that of recreation. In the old days young and old alike

found fun and amusement in "threshings," "husking bees," "quilting parties," "house raisings," and "spelling matches." In most rural neighborhoods today such forms of recreation have long since vanished.

Their place has been taken in some communities by social gatherings provided by the Grange, the school, and the church. In other districts the people have erected buildings containing gymnasiums, swimming pools, libraries, and auditoriums. Here enjoyment is found in concerts, lectures, motion pictures, community "sings," and athletic contests.

Marketing. The marketing of farm produce is a second difficult problem. When crops are small a farmer's profits frequently amount to a slight sum even though prices are high. When crops are large the prices paid a farmer are often so low that the total he receives is barely enough to pay the cost of harvesting. Indeed, occasionally he receives less for a carload of fruit or vegetables than he must pay for freight charges on the shipment.

The most hopeful method of solving the marketing problem lies in teamwork. In many rural neighborhoods farmers have established coöperative creameries, grain elevators, canning factories, and fruit-growers' associations to handle and dispose of their products. The result is usually a higher return to the farmer and a lower cost to the consumer.

Production. But the most difficult problem, perhaps, is that of production. Farming is one of the most uncertain, laborious, and poorly paid occupations in the world. In one day the weather can ruin the hopes of a season. An untimely frost can spoil a crop of peaches or tomatoes. An army of insects can in a short time destroy the labors of a year.

Truly the farmer "wrests" his living from the soil; for his daily work is in large part a hand-to-hand struggle with nature. With the advance of scientific knowledge and the

A PROSPEROUS RURAL COMMUNITY

Beautiful for situation is this farming community. The spacious barns and well-tilled fields indicate that the labors of the farmers in the valley have been rewarded.

increased use of labor-saving machinery, however, he is steadily gaining in the contest.

Changes in rural life. Great changes have taken place in rural life since the days of Daniel Boone. If the old frontiersman could wake up some morning in a modern

A GATHERING OF MARKET GARDENERS

Just as doctors or manufacturers hold conventions to study new methods and new equipment these market gardeners meet together from time to time to exchange experiences, to examine the latest machinery, and to learn new ways of solving problems.

farmhouse, he would be greatly astonished at his surroundings. He would hardly feel at home in a plastered house, containing glass windows, heated by a furnace, and lighted at night through the pressing of a button on the wall. He would look upon the telephone as an instrument of magic, while the radio, with its voices coming from hundreds of miles away, would seem a miracle. He would see farm work transformed by the use of machinery and the results of

scientific discovery. For such are a few of the ways in which rural life has changed in the last century. Changes equally great may be expected in the future as a result of the work of men who are devoting their energies to solving the farmer's problems.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What do you like best about the country? What do you like least?

2. What change in rural life during the last century would in your opinion impress George Washington as most important were he to return to earth today? Give reasons.

3. Name the chief crops raised on the farms in your vicinity. What are the chief insect enemies of the farmers? What attempts are made to destroy such foes?

4. Point out one similarity and one difference between the problems of cities and the problems of rural communities.

Section V. How to be a Good Neighbor

The neighborhood. By the word neighbor we usually mean one who lives near. In like manner the word neighborhood ordinarily applies to the immediate locality in which one resides. Unlike a community, a neighborhood has no legal basis, for as a rule there is no such thing as a neighborhood government.

The character of a neighborhood is determined largely by the people who dwell in it. Whether or not it proves a pleasant place in which to live depends on the residents and on their relations to one another. As a member of the neighborhood you can help in several ways to make your locality wholesome and attractive.

1. *Be interested in your neighborhood.* Remember that you belong to it and that it belongs to you. Become acquainted

with it. Learn its shops, stores, and points of note. Study its history and traditions. Be informed about local enterprises and movements. Know its problems and what sort of voters decide its elections. Take an interest in your community.

2. *Help to improve your neighborhood.* What it is depends in part on you. Help to keep it clean; try to give it a good

GOOD NEIGHBORS

Permanently disabled by an injury received while on duty, this officer is discovering the value of friendship. Fifty of his fellow policemen have joined together to build him a bungalow, the framework of which can be seen in the background.

name; do your best to make it what you would like it to be. Adopt as your own this pledge of the young men of ancient Athens:

We will never bring disgrace on this, our city, by any act of dishonesty or cowardice. We will fight for the ideals and the sacred things of the city, both alone and with many. We will revere and obey the city's laws, and we will do our best to incite a like reverence and respect in those above us who are prone to annul them or set

them at naught. We will strive unceasingly to quicken the public's sense of civic duty. Thus, in all these ways, we will transmit this city, not only not less, but greater, better, and more beautiful, than it was transmitted to us.

Benjamin Franklin was just such a citizen. Although a newcomer to Philadelphia he was the first person to put up a street lamp in front of his house to aid passers-by in the night. He took the lead in paving his own sidewalk and in employing a man to keep the street clean in front of his home. He founded the first hospital and helped to establish the first free library in the city. He also played a part in organizing a fire department, a police force, an academy, and a society to promote science. Franklin was always on the look-out for ways in which to better the place in which he lived.

3. *Be friendly and courteous.* Neighborhoods are much like homes: some are gloomy and forbidding; others are cheerful, inviting, and hospitable. Help to make your neighborhood a friendly place. Greet people with a smile, help strangers to find their way, be respectful to older folk, show courtesy to all.

4. *Take pride in your neighborhood.* Stand up for it. Talk about its merits; help to remove its defects. Try to beautify it. Be proud of your neighborhood. Even boast about it a little now and then. Feel about it as James Whitcomb Riley felt about the street on which he lived:

> Such a dear little street it is, nestled away
> From the noise of the city and heat of the day,
> In cool shady coverts of whispering trees,
> With their leaves lifted up to shake hands with the breeze
> Which in all its wide wanderings never may meet
> With a resting-place fairer than Lockerbie street!

Summary. Primitive, frontier, city, and rural communities are alike in many ways; they are also very different. In a primitive community there is little division of labor; property is shared by all; the members of the

tribe are rigidly controlled in almost everything they do. In frontier and rural communities there is also little division of labor; property, although privately owned, is generously shared with those in need; hospitality is common; personal liberty is interfered with very slightly by law or government.

The inhabitants of a city, on the other hand, are highly specialized in their labor; they sell their products and buy their supplies in distant markets; their individual freedom, while not limited as in a primitive tribe, is in some ways much more restricted than on the frontier or in the country. But in spite of differences that mark one community off from another, the members of each are bound together by like interests and face similar problems. In each there is the same need for teamwork; in each the common welfare is the highest goal.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name four attractions in your neighborhood; name two defects. Suggest ways by which the defects may be ended; can your class do anything to end them?

2. Mention ways by which to carry out in your community the law of the Boy Scouts: "Do at least one good turn to somebody every day."

3. Name three similarities in the community life of primitive tribes, American backwoodsmen, rural people, and the inhabitants of a modern city. Name three differences. What is the greatest similarity? the greatest difference?

4. Would an individual be least dependent on other people in a primitive, frontier, rural, or city community? In which kind of community would he enjoy the most freedom? In which would he find the most comforts and luxuries? Give reasons.

5. Why must individual liberty be limited more in a city than in a frontier settlement?

6. What is the most difficult problem of a primitive tribe? of a modern city? of a rural community? What is the hardest problem of your community? Why?

THINGS TO DO

1. Choose committees to dramatize before the class scenes in the community life of a primitive tribe, a frontier settlement, a city, and a rural neighborhood.

2. Choose committees to prepare for the bulletin board pictures and drawings showing the life and implements of primitive, frontier, city, and rural people.

3. Make maps of your community and of your neighborhood, locating the main points of interest.

4. Ask your father or a neighbor to name four important problems (1) of your neighborhood and (2) of your community. Tabulate the results in class. Compare with the problems mentioned in Sections III and IV; also with those listed in the chapter headings of this book.

5. Bring to class a clipping or a story illustrating neighborly conduct.

6. Write a composition on one of these subjects: "What I should like my Neighborhood to Be"; "How I can help to improve my Neighborhood"; "The Kind of Neighbor I Like."

7. Try your hand at writing a stanza or a short poem about the street on which you live (read James Whitcomb Riley's "Lockerbie Street" in *Afterwhiles*, 12–13).

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "A Wilderness Scout," S. E. White, *America's Message*, 18–30.
2. "The Pioneers," D. Fallon, *ibid.*, 97–98.
3. * "Indians," C. A. Eastman, *In Our Times*, 5–17.
4. * "The Swiss Lake Dwellers," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 24–29.
5. "The Last Threshing in the Coulee," H. Garland, *The Worker and his Work*, 170–175.
6. "Goodwill," *Fiber and Finish*, 24–32.
7. "Children of the Desert," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, I, 167–168.
8. "When All Man's Tools Were Made of Stone," *ibid.*, VIII, 3360–3361.
9. * "The Neighborhood and the Community," *Readings in Community Life*, Part I, section 5.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. *Daniel Boone, Backwoodsman*, by C. H. Forbes-Lindsay. Lippincott.
2. *The Life of David Crockett*, by David Crockett. Burt.
3. *The Story of a Pioneer*, by Anna H. Shaw. Harper.
4. * *Strange Peoples*, by Frederick A. Starr. Heath.
5. *Our Friends at the Farm*, by E. C. Davies. Crowell.
6. *The Story of the Cowboy*, by Emerson Hough. Appleton.
7. *The Bible.* "Ruth."
8. *The Story of Primitive Man*, by Edward Clodd.
9. *The Land of the Midnight Sun*, by Paul du Chaillu. Scribner.
10. *Representative Cities of the United States*, by C. W. Hotchkiss. Houghton.
11. * *Our Southern Highlanders*, by Horace Kephart. Macmillan.
12. *Pioneer History Stories*, by Charles A. McMurry. Macmillan.
13. *The Romance of Forgotten Towns*, by John T. Faris. Harper.
14. *Great Cities of the United States*, by Gertrude V. D. Southworth and Stephen E. Kramer. Iroquois.
15. *My Life as an Indian*, by James W. Schultz. Houghton.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *The King of the Golden River*, by John Ruskin. Ginn.
2. *Erskine Dale, Pioneer*, by John Fox, Jr. Scribner.
3. * *Under the Greenwood Tree*, by Thomas Hardy. Harper.
4. *With the Indians in the Rockies*, by James W. Schultz. Houghton.
5. *Adventures in Friendship*, by David Grayson. Grosset.
6. *Lorna Doone*, by Richard D. Blackmore. Ginn.
7. * *The Last of the Mohicans*, by James Fenimore Cooper. Ginn.
8. *The Deserted Village*, by Oliver Goldsmith. Ginn.
9. * *The Luck of Roaring Camp*, by Bret Harte. Houghton.
10. *Hiawatha*, by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. Houghton.
11. *Scottish Chiefs*, by Jane Porter. Dutton.
12. * *Around the Fire*, by Hanford M. Burr. Association Press.
13. * *The Iron Star*, by John P. True. Little.
14. * *The Story of Ab*, by Stanley Waterloo. Doubleday.
15. *The Forest*, by Stewart Edward White. Doubleday.
16. *Friendship Village Stories*, by Zona Gale. Macmillan.
17. *To Have and to Hold*, by Mary Johnston. Houghton.
18. *Hearts Undaunted*, by Eleanor Atkinson. Harper.
19. *Boone of the Wilderness*, by Daniel Henderson. Dutton.
20. *Including Mother*, by Margaret Ashmun. Macmillan.

CHAPTER VI

OUR NATION AND OUR COUNTRY

There can be no divided allegiance here. Any man who says he is an American, but something else also, isn't an American at all. We have room for but one flag, the American flag. — THEODORE ROOSEVELT

SECTION I. AMERICA

America is a place. Most of us, when we think of our country, picture first of all the wide expanse of territory that stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific and that lies between Canada on the north and Mexico and the Gulf on the south. We see America as a region on the map. We think of America as land.

At such times our country means fertile valleys, rolling prairies, broad plains, rugged mountains, beautiful lakes, great rivers. It is a region of rich resources — iron, coal, lead, copper, oil, timber, zinc, farm lands. It is a storehouse filled by nature with uncounted treasures. America is, then, a place.

America is opportunity. But our country is more than land. From the very beginning people who suffered from religious persecution across the sea found in America freedom to worship God as they thought right. Here those who were oppressed by harsh and tyrannical government secured liberty. Here they obtained opportunity to rule themselves.

People who in Europe were born to be hewers of wood and drawers of water secured in America a chance to rise in the world. Here they found no fixed classes or stations in life. Here they discovered opportunities for education and self-improvement, limited only by their own industry,

capacity, and character. Here they found ways to better their lot and improve their condition in life. They learned, in short, that America is opportunity.

America is an ideal. Since its discovery America has meant hope to the discouraged, relief to the burdened,

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AMERICA THE BEAUTIFUL

The grandeur of the Swiss mountains, the beauty of the Lakes of Killarney, and the charm of the glens of Scotland are all found in America, sometimes in one place. The gates of the Yosemite, shown above, form the entrance to the Yosemite National Park, in eastern California, a park noted for its big trees, lofty cliffs, and beautiful waterfalls.

liberty to the oppressed. From the first it has inspired men's dreams, awakened their ambitions, and stimulated their energies.

But America is not perfect. Although it has been an ideal, it has at times fallen short of man's vision. Injustice, greed, oppression, and selfishness have more than once prevailed within its boundaries. America is not a completed product; its possibilities are not all realized; it is still in the making. In the words of Franklin K. Lane,

America is a vision of life, a conception of free men making their way, constantly and unendingly, against every challenge that nature presents — the challenge of the mountains, of the streams, of the forests, of the lands, and the challenge of the greed, the indifference, the laziness, and the wilfulness of man's own nature.

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THE PROMISED LAND

With backs to the past and faces toward the future, this family is approaching America, the land of promise. The Statue of Liberty in New York harbor stands in the background.

America is more than a place. America is even more than opportunity. America is a vision of life, an ideal!

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is our country? Write an answer giving your idea in your own words.

2. What do you admire most about the United States? Explain.

3. Mention two ways in which the character of a country is

determined by the people who live in it. Is there any way in which the character of a country is not determined by its inhabitants? Be definite.

4. Explain the quotation from Franklin K. Lane given above.

5. Bring to class a poem or an essay which best expresses your thought of America.

Section II. How our Ancestors came to America

Our foreign ancestry. How long have you lived in America? "Why, all my life," you probably say. Can your parents or grandparents make the same reply? Whatever your answer may be, most of us cannot go back very far in our family history before we discover ancestors who were born in England, Ireland, Scotland, Germany, Poland, Italy, or some other country. Today one out of every three of us was born in a foreign land or is the child of a father or mother who was born in a foreign land. No one can trace his American ancestry farther back than three hundred years. We are all either of foreign birth or the descendants of people of foreign birth. The only original American is the Indian.

Mixture of nations in America. Suppose you now make a list of the last names of your classmates or, better still, of people who live in your community. Do you find names containing *Mac*, *berg*, *ton*, *ski*, *duff*, *vitch*, *mann*, *stein*, *son*, *ini*, *thal*, *fitz*, and *feld*? Names with such syllables usually show the nation or race from which the owner is descended. Most of the "Macs" came from Scotland or Ireland, the "bergs" and "manns" from Germany, the "tons" from England, the "skis" and "vitches" from Poland or Russia, and the "sons" from Scandinavian countries. All European nations have descendants in our country and all have representatives in the list of great Americans. In one of his addresses Theodore Roosevelt said:

Among the generals of Washington in the Revolutionary War were Greene, Putnam, and Lee, who were of English descent; Wayne and Sullivan, of Irish descent; Marion, of French descent; Schuyler, of Dutch descent; and Muhlenberg and Herkimer, of German descent. But they were all of them Americans and nothing else, just as much as Washington.

Early comers largely English. The great mixture of nationalities in the United States has come about largely during the last hundred years. Before 1820 immigration was mostly from England. The story of Virginia and the Southern colonies, of Massachusetts and the New England settlements, is in large part the story of English settlers conquering the wilderness and driving out the red man.

Bands of French colonists, it is true, came to South Carolina; companies of Swedes were the earliest inhabitants of Delaware; German and Scotch-Irish groups settled in large numbers in Pennsylvania, western Virginia, and North Carolina; the Dutch originally occupied parts of New York and New Jersey. But in spite of such exceptions the majority of Americans down to 1820 were of English descent.

Immigration from northwestern Europe, 1820-1885. Shortly after 1820, immigrants began to arrive in large numbers from northwestern Europe. The movement at first was chiefly from Ireland and Germany. In 1846 a terrible potato famine in Ireland caused thousands of deaths and led to a heavy emigration to America. About the same time the harsh rulers of Germany crushed a desperate revolt against their tyranny and shot and imprisoned thousands of their subjects. Many of those who escaped sought refuge in America.

The Civil War slowed up immigration, but shortly after the struggle the stream became larger than ever. Not only did the Irish and Germans continue to come, but Norwegians, Swedes, and Danes increased the flood until the total number of immigrants in a single year went up into the hundreds of thousands.

Immigration from southeastern Europe. Until 1885 immigration was almost entirely from northwestern Europe. Then a change took place. From the countries of southeastern Europe immigrants began to arrive by thousands and tens of thousands. In 1880 the incomers from such countries

CHILDREN OF THIRTY-THREE NATIONALITIES

Dressed in the costumes of their ancestral lands, these children illustrate the variety of nationalities that make up the American people. How many nationalities are represented in your class?

amounted to only one tenth of our total immigration; twenty-five years later they numbered over eight tenths.

Comparison of the "old" and the "new" immigrants. The "old" immigrants, as those who came to America before 1885 are called, usually left their native country because they disliked the harsh government, heavy taxes, and compulsory army service, or because they found it hard to earn a living; religious persecution, too, often caused Europeans

to leave the land of their birth. In America they found not only freedom from oppression but also a chance to better their conditions in life. The "old" immigrants came with their families. They usually settled in rural communities where land could be had almost for nothing. They entered

THE INCOMING FLOOD

What will this incoming tide of immigrants do for our country? Will it be better or worse that they have come? They in turn are wondering what America has in store for them. Will it reward their hopes? Or will it prove a disappointment?

with the intention of becoming Americans and of making America their home. Their ideals, customs, and habits were much like those of native Americans. As a rule they were eager to become naturalized citizens. They caused few problems.

The "new" immigrants, as those who have come to America since 1885 are called, differ from the "old" in many ways. The "old" immigrants were better educated

oftentimes than were native Americans; most of the late comers are from countries where the mass of the people can neither read nor write. The earlier arrivals were frequently skilled workmen; the late immigrants are generally unskilled laborers. With few exceptions the earlier comers brought their families to America and settled in the new country intending to become American citizens; many of the recent arrivals leave their families behind and expect to return to Europe as soon as they save a sum of money.

Unlike the "old" immigrants, the late comers generally live in cities. Three fourths of the people of New York, Chicago, Boston, Cleveland, and Detroit and over one half of the population of Philadelphia, St. Louis, Pittsburgh, and San Francisco are of foreign parentage. In the cities the "new" immigrants frequently dwell in racial groups in districts which come to be known as the Italian district, the Polish neighborhood, and the Bohemian section. Here they often continue to use their own language and follow their own customs. The existence of sections populated largely by people from a single European country brings difficult problems to the community.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. When did your ancestors come to America? For what reasons did they come? Were they disappointed in what they found?

2. On a map of the eastern part of the United States find names which indicate the nationality of the early colonists. What do names in the Southwest show about the nationality of the first settlers there?

3. What do the names of counties, rivers, lakes, and cities in your part of the country tell about the national origin of the early inhabitants? What is shown by the names of the streets and roads in your community?

4. Make a list of the nationalities represented in your neighborhood; in your community.

Section III. Our Policy toward the Immigrant

Open-door policy. In early days America welcomed all immigrants. Our doors stood wide open to all who cared to come, for our greatest need was workers. Here were forests to clear, mines to develop, prairies to cultivate, roads to build. Since our chief lack was laborers, we were glad to receive immigrants.

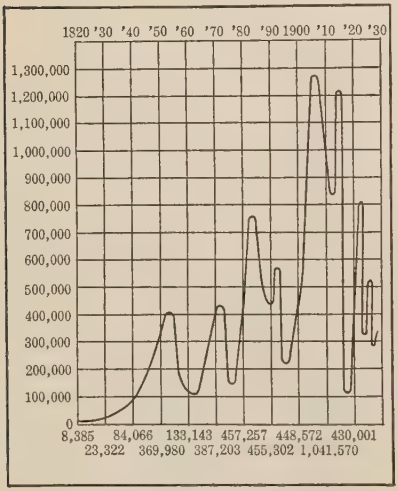
True, in colonial times, religious disagreements occasionally caused the first settlers to drive out newcomers. Later, when John Adams was president, trouble with France made Americans suspicious of foreigners and led to harsh laws against aliens. Again, in the middle of the nineteenth century, strong opposition to foreigners was aroused by the large number of immigrants then coming to America. But not until 1876 did any law limit immigration, and even then only criminals were shut out.

Restrictive policy. The open door gradually closed after 1880. Fifteen years earlier contractors who had had trouble in securing laborers to build the Union Pacific Railway brought in large numbers of Chinese workmen. A few years after the road was completed, "hard times" threw thousands of white laborers out of jobs, and the men who had no work quickly became angry at the low-paid, yellow-skinned Chinaman. Riots and mob violence against the coolie became frequent events, and, as a result, President Arthur and Congress were stirred to action. After some negotiations China agreed to a change in the treaty by which we had promised to admit her citizens into the country, and in 1882 Congress forbade the immigration of Chinese laborers into the United States. Today only Chinese students, merchants, manufacturers, and travelers may enter our gates.

Opposition to the immigration of Japanese workmen developed on the Pacific coast early in the twentieth century. In 1907 a friendly arrangement was made by which

Japanese laborers were prevented by their own government from coming to our country. This "gentleman's agreement," as it was called, was ended in 1924 when Congress placed the Japanese on the same basis as the Chinese, an act which caused hard feeling in Japan.

While opposition to Oriental immigrants was growing, many Americans watched uneasily the vast armies of European workmen who were invading the land. Demands were repeatedly made for laws to limit their numbers, and in consequence Congress, between 1885 and 1910, passed acts excluding convicts, lunatics, idiots, paupers, anarchists, laborers under contract, and persons likely to become public burdens. In 1917 Congress also provided for the exclusion of "all aliens over sixteen years of age, physically capable of reading, who cannot read the English language, or some other language or dialect."



A CENTURY OF IMMIGRATION

Find the main causes for the sudden changes in immigration as shown on this chart

The door almost closed. The millions of Americans out of work after the World War led to further restriction of immigration. By the act of 1924 Congress limited the number of any European nationality admitted in a year to 2 per cent of the foreign-born of that nationality in the country in 1890. This law reduced the number of aliens who may enter the United States from outside the New World to 162,000 a year. The law, as extended in 1928, also provides that after July 1, 1929, the limit shall be 150,000. Government

officers and their families, tourists, business men, ministers, teachers, and students may enter for temporary residence without restriction. With the act of 1924 the door was almost closed.

Naturalization policy. In far-off times only free persons born within a country were citizens of the state. They alone were secure in the enjoyment of life, liberty, and property. The Romans had a wider vision and gradually gave citizenship to the people they conquered, until in time almost all free persons living in the Empire were Romans. Our own country, however, developed the most generous policy toward aliens the world has ever seen.

A liberal policy was easy and natural for us, for we were all foreigners or the children of foreigners. Land was plentiful and inhabitants were few. In colonial times, therefore, many attractions were offered to lure settlers to America, not the least being an offer to the newcomers of all rights enjoyed by native Americans. After the Revolution the practice of the colonies became the policy of the nation, and, until the Chinese question arose, citizenship remained open on equal terms to all immigrants.

Process of naturalization. At the present time, who are citizens? who may become citizens? The Constitution answers the first question thus: "All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside." But what is naturalization, and how can one become naturalized?

Briefly stated, naturalization is the process by which a citizen of one country becomes a citizen of another country. In the United States two acts are necessary to bring about the change: first, the alien must formally renounce, or give up, all allegiance, or loyalty, to his former country and ruler; second, he must declare his allegiance, or loyalty, to the United States. That is, on becoming naturalized, an alien must deny henceforth all obedience to his native land and

its rulers and must become a loyal citizen of America. By naturalization a foreigner becomes, for all practical purposes, as much a citizen or member of our country as if he had been born under the Stars and Stripes.

Advantages of naturalization. Why should a foreigner become naturalized? Perhaps the chief reason is that in no

BREAKING BREAD WITH UNCLE SAM

Immigrants are no longer herded together like sheep in a corral, but are treated in a friendly manner by the officials. As these men wait for their physical examinations, they are being served with coffee and sandwiches at Uncle Sam's expense.

other way can he cease to be a foreigner and become a member of the nation. A person who gets his living in a country and who is protected by its laws should be eager to defend it against enemies. Moreover, complete protection by the law and certain property rights are enjoyed only by citizens. In addition, a citizen is looked upon in a more kindly way by his neighbors than is a foreigner; he is more likely to be regarded as "one of us," as a member of the community rather than as an outsider. In the fifth

place, an immigrant, as a citizen, will have less difficulty in getting a job when jobs are scarce; for some companies will not employ aliens, and other companies will discharge them first if they find it necessary to cut down the number of their employees. The right to vote and to hold public office are privileges that are also restricted to native-born

Ewing Galloway

NEIGHBORLINESS AT ELLIS ISLAND

While these women and children wait for their examinations, they are provided with sewing to pass the time. Perhaps nothing could make these little girls feel more at home in a strange land than having a doll to dress. The materials are provided free, and the women may take the finished articles with them.

or naturalized Americans. But the greatest value in naturalization, of course, is the satisfaction which comes from being an American — from belonging to the country of Washington, Lincoln, Roosevelt, and Wilson, and to a land founded on principles of justice, righteousness, and liberty. This desire has led many noble men and women to give up citizenship in the land of their birth and to become loyal citizens of the United States.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. In an American history find out about the Alien Acts of 1798. Why were they passed? Why were they objectionable? Compare the provisions of the Alien Acts with our present naturalization requirements.

2. Give reasons for excluding each class of persons mentioned on page 128.

3. Are you a citizen? How can you tell? Are all voters citizens? Are all citizens voters? Which is the more valuable — the right to vote or the right to be a citizen? Give reasons.

4. What does the word "naturalization" mean? What rights does a native-born citizen have which a naturalized citizen does not possess? Should there be any difference between them? Give reasons. What should you tell a foreigner who wants to know how to become naturalized?

5. *Work for a volunteer:* Look up the story of the passage of the immigration act of 1924 and tell why the law caused hard feeling in Japan. For articles giving information, see the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature.*

SECTION IV. WHAT WE CAN DO FOR THE IMMIGRANT

Our debt to immigrants. What can we do for immigrants? We can try to understand them and endeavor to appreciate what we owe to them. Many of us have a wrong notion of foreigners who come to America. We picture them as clad in outlandish garments, with bright-colored shawls on their heads, carrying bundles of odd shapes and sizes, and accompanied by many children. We associate them merely with pushcarts of fruit or vegetables; with the digging of ditches and tunnels; with the building of railroads, highways, and skyscrapers; with the mining of coal and iron; with work in kitchen, laundry, factory, and mill.

Sometimes we think of immigrants rather scornfully as rough, ill-mannered people who live in ugly tenements and who speak an unintelligible jargon or a funny, half-broken English. Occasionally we look on them as a benefit to the country; sometimes as a nuisance; frequently as a danger.

Ewing Galloway

EAST SIDE

If we could mingle with this crowd in the East Side of New York, we should meet representatives from almost every nationality in Europe and from many of the countries of Asia as well. The street might well be called the aisle of pushcarts.

Seldom do we picture them as we do the Pilgrims, leaving their native land and braving unknown hardships to win freedom and opportunity in far-off America.

And yet aliens come to our shores every year with motives and dreams quite as noble as those which led the early colonists to face the dangers of the wilderness hundreds of years ago. No one who reads Mary Antin's story of the hopes which brought her from downtrodden Russia to the

promised land, or Edward Steiner's account of his journey across the sea from distant Austria can doubt the willingness of immigrants to suffer and their courage to endure. In their struggles we see again the heroism of the early settlers and pioneers.

We owe a great deal to immigrants. During the Civil War regiments of immigrant volunteers did much to save the Union. In the World War thousands of our soldiers had been born under a foreign sky. Such men as Alexander Hamilton, Albert Gallatin, Louis Agassiz, Carl Schurz, Robert Owen, Jacob Riis, Franklin K. Lane, and John Muir have served their adopted country as scientists, authors, statesmen, diplomats, legislators, governors, soldiers, musicians, inventors, and business men.

To immigrant laborers we owe much of our material progress. They have built most of our railroads, erected many of our skyscrapers, and conquered most of our mines. To immigrants we are indebted also for many of the manners and customs that play a large part in making American life colorful and interesting.

Fair play. Many people think that it would be wise for our country to exclude foreign labor altogether, and they may be right. But so long as we permit aliens to enter our gates we should see that they receive fair play.

Immigrants are occasionally victimized by greedy employers who hire foreigners to work at hard, rough labor for long hours, low wages, and under unhealthful conditions. Frequently a newcomer is led into a poorly paid job by one of his own countrymen who receives a commission on the wage paid to the laborer. Ignorant of our language and customs, a foreigner also falls an easy prey to sharpers who trick him out of hard-earned savings.

Immigrants who have been deceived and unjustly treated usually go back to their native land hating America for the wrongs which they have suffered, or else they remain in the United States with bitterness in their hearts. Most

foreigners do not have such unhappy experiences, but those who do often become sources of danger to the community. Safety to ourselves as well as justice to them requires that we establish agencies and laws to protect them from wrong and injury.

Good government and the ballot. Immigrants have often had a bad effect on our government. Many of them come

AN AMERICANIZATION CLASS

By taking part in a mock legislature these men are learning how our lawmaking machinery works.

from countries in which the people have little to do with political matters and hence do not understand rule by the people. Ignorant of the meaning of the ballot, they often vote as they are told by politicians who care nothing about the public welfare but who wish to advance their own selfish ends by controlling the government. Unintentionally the immigrant thus becomes a source of injury to the community.

Friendship and sympathy. Laws, agencies, and organizations do much for the immigrant. But more important than

any law or organization is our own attitude toward him. What he needs most of all is friendliness and sympathy. If we look down on him as upon someone beneath us, if we attempt to destroy his ideals and customs, if we try to make him just like ourselves, we shall not only fail to make him a good American but we shall also lose all that he can give to make our country strong, noble, and beautiful. We need the thrift of the Scotch, the wit of the Irish, the perseverance of the English, the courtesy of the French, the patience of the Slav, the music of the German, and the art of the Italian to make America rich, varied, interesting.

Summary. America is a land of rich resources; it means opportunity; it is an ideal. Hither from all the nations of Europe have come the oppressed, the burden-bearers, the lovers of freedom.

America is a land of immigrants or the descendants of immigrants. Down to 1820 our population was mostly of English stock; between 1820 and 1885 immigrants came largely from northwestern Europe; since 1885 the great mass of incomers have been from southeastern Europe. The "old" immigrants, as those who came between 1820 and 1885 are called, were for the most part skilled workers, fairly well educated, eager to become citizens. The "new" immigrants, as those who have arrived since 1885 are known, have usually been unskilled workers, with little education, and with slight desire to become Americans. Down to 1876 we welcomed all comers to our shores, but since that time we have gradually raised the bars to safeguard our own workers, industries, and civilization.

So long as we admit aliens we incur obligations to them. For our own safety as well as for their welfare we need to protect immigrants from wrong, to explain to them the meaning of democracy, to set before them in our own conduct the best side of American life, to appreciate what they have given to enrich our country, and to be friendly and sympathetic in our relations with them.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why should we try to make Americans of immigrants? Suggest three ways by which we can accomplish the task. Is learning to speak, read, and write English necessary in order to become an American? Should foreign customs be permitted here? For example, should foreign folk dances and foods be allowed? Give reasons.

2. What does it mean to vote? How can a foreigner find out the meaning of the ballot in your community?

3. Do you think immigration should be further restricted? If so, how — by a property qualification, an additional educational test, or in some other way? Explain.

4. Mention one thing your community is doing to help foreigners to become good citizens. Is there any way by which your class can aid in the work?

5. *Reports for volunteers:* Tell the life story of one of the immigrants mentioned on pages 123 and 134. See the books in the reading list on pages 138–139.

THINGS TO DO

1. America is fair play. Write a paragraph or poem, using the foregoing sentence as your main idea.

2. America is service. Show in a picture or cartoon the thought summed up in the preceding sentence.

3. List contributions which the following groups have made to America: Danes, Swedes, Norwegians, Germans, Irish, Scotch, French, Greeks, Italians, Russians, Poles, English, Dutch. Each pupil look up one nationality, selecting a nationality not in the list if he prefers.

4. Dramatize the naturalization of a foreigner. See McPheters, Cleaveland, and Jones's *Citizenship Dramatized* (Holt, New York), 136–166.

5. Make a class scrapbook on immigration, each pupil contributing pictures, cartoons, newspaper clippings, and graphs. Choose a committee to select the best material, arrange it in

chapters, and mount it in the scrapbook. Show the scrapbook to your principal and then file it in your classroom bookcase for use by later classes.

6. Organize into committees to make a map of your neighborhood or community showing the different nationalities and their numbers. Use a red dot to indicate ten persons of one nationality, a blue dot to indicate ten persons of another nationality, and so on. Put on the map as many dots of each color as there are multiples of ten of the nationality in the community.

7. Write a short composition on this subject: Why I am glad I live in America.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "By Steerage to the New World," A. M. Rihbany, *In Our Times*, 72–75.
2. * "Immigrant Children," C. M. Panunzio, *ibid.*, 75–78.
3. "An Immigrant Child at the Wicket of Ellis Island," *ibid.*, 78–80.
4. "Julia Ward Howe, Author of 'The Battle Hymn of the Republic,'" *Heroes of Progress*, 91–96.
5. * "America the Beautiful," K. L. Bates, *America's Message*, xi–xii.
6. "How the National Hymn was Written," F. S. Key-Smith, *ibid.*, 4–8.
7. * "On Becoming an American Citizen," E. A. Steiner, *ibid.*, 102–104.
8. "You Talk of This and That," H. Kemp, *ibid.*, 105–106.
9. * "America for Me," H. van Dyke, *ibid.*, 134–135.
10. "Assimilating the Immigrant Horde," *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, 256–268.
11. "A New American," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, IV, 1739–1740.
12. "Our Nation and Our Country," *Readings in Community Life*, Part I, section 6.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Travel, Essay

1. * *A Dutch Boy Fifty Years After*, by Edward W. Bok. Scribner.
2. *Heroes of Liberty*, by Grace Humphrey. Bobbs.
3. * *The Making of an American*, by Jacob A. Riis. Macmillan.
4. *From Immigrant to Inventor*, by Michael Pupin. Scribner.
5. * *My Autobiography*, by Samuel S. McClure. Stokes.
6. *An American in the Making*, by Marcus E. Ravage. Harper.
7. * *From Alien to Citizen*, by Edward A. Steiner. Revell.

8. *The Soul of an Immigrant*, by Constantine M. Panunzio. Macmillan.
9. *A Far Journey*, by A. M. Rihbany. Houghton.
10. *Our Foreign-Born Citizens*, by Annie E. S. Beard. Crowell.
11. *Out of the Shadow*, by Rose Cohen. Doran.
12. * *Americans by Adoption*, by Joseph Husband. Atlantic.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *Mary of Plymouth*, by James Otis. American.
2. * *The Man Without a Country*, by Edward Everett Hale. Little.
3. *The Covered Wagon*, by Emerson Hough. Appleton.
4. * *Little Aliens*, by Myra Kelly. McClure.
5. *Wards of Liberty*, by Myra Kelly. McClure.
6. *Sandy*, by Alice Hegan Rice. Century.
7. *Poems of Heroism in American Life*, edited by John R. Howard. Crowell.
8. *My Ántonia*, by Willa Cather. Houghton.
9. *The Broken Wall*, by Edward A. Steiner. Revell.
10. * *The Melting Pot*, by Israel Zangwill. Macmillan.
11. * *Our Naputski Neighbors*, by Edith M. Miniter. Holt.

CHAPTER VII

OUR NEIGHBORS IN OTHER LANDS

Science and peace will finally triumph over ignorance and war.

LOUIS PASTEUR

Next to the great fact of a nation's *independence* is the great fact of its *interdependence.* — JOHN HAY

SECTION I. HOW NATIONS DEPEND ON ONE ANOTHER

Independence of early America. The colonists and pioneers who settled the American wilderness depended very little upon the countries beyond the seas. For the most part they raised their own food, prepared their own clothing, made their own furniture, and built their own cabins. Before many years they made even their own rifles, gunpowder, and tools. With the exception of spices and a few manufactured articles, they used little from foreign lands.

Imports of modern America. But conditions have greatly changed since pioneer days. Few articles in our homes are entirely of American origin or manufacture. The food on our tables, the clothes on our backs, the materials in our shops and factories come, more often than we realize, from other lands.

Nowadays, as someone has said, it is hard to imagine how an American could live a day without using some product from another country. He could drink no tea, coffee, cocoa, or chocolate. He could eat no white bread, even if made of American wheat, for the bolting cloths used to make white flour are of Japanese silk woven in Swiss factories, while the sisal needed for binding sheaves

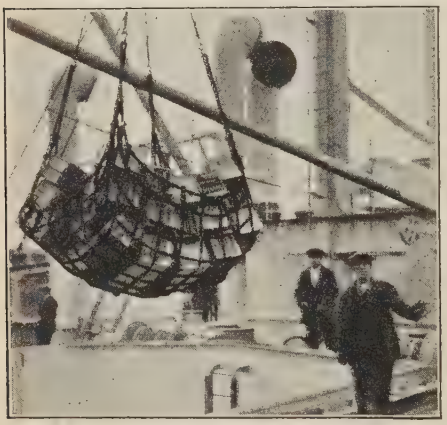
comes from Yucatan. Nor could he partake of canned fruit or vegetables (unless put up in glass jars), because tin comes for the most part from Bolivia, the East Indies, and the Malay Peninsula, while the palm oil required to make the tin stick on sheet steel comes from West Africa.

OTHER COUNTRIES AND THE HOME

Without the contributions of other lands these rooms would have no electric lights, no silk draperies or scarfs, no piano, no Oriental rugs, and few ornaments on the mantel.

An American who wished to be wholly independent of other nations could use no linen towels, napkins, or handkerchiefs. He would be unable to wear silk ties, silk shirts, or silk hosiery. If he went out for a walk, he could wear no hat made of felt or straw. He could not ride in an automobile unless in one made without rubber tires. Nor could he have electric lights in his home, for the materials used in making a single electric lamp include potash from Germany,

tungsten from Japan, feldspar from Sweden, shellac from India, bismuth from Australia, cobalt from Canada, cork from Spain, niter from Chile, cryolite from Greenland, manganese from Russia, and sodium carbonate from British East Africa. And what is true of electric bulbs is equally true of many articles in everyday use. A list of the imported materials used in the manufacture of steel alone would cover fourteen pages.[1]



AMERICAN ORANGES FOR ENGLISH BREAKFASTS

Sixteen thousand boxes of California oranges are being unloaded at Hull, England.

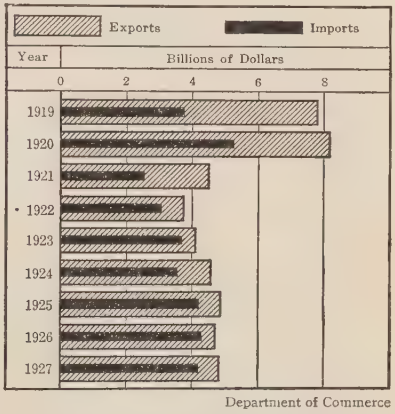
Exports of modern America. Our dependence on other countries does not end with what we secure from them, for we also depend on them to buy much that we produce. Over half of our cotton, one fourth of our wheat, and three fifths of our copper go to foreign markets. The manufactured products we sell abroad amount to almost four billion dollars a year. If other nations refused to buy from us, our farmers would be unable to sell a large part of their crops; many of our mines and factories would be forced to close; hundreds of thousands of Americans would be thrown out of work; hard times and suffering would follow.

Fortunately other nations depend on us fully as much as we depend on them. If we need their coffee, they need our steel; if we want their silk and linen, they want our corn and wheat; if we seek their rubber, dyes, and oil, they desire our copper, cotton, sewing machines, and locomotives.

[1] Irving Fisher, *Fact Studies in International Relations.*

As President Coolidge has said, "The interdependence of peoples and nations becomes more marked every year. None can stand alone."

International character of the arts and sciences. The interdependence of nations is not limited to food, clothing, manufactured goods, and raw materials. They also depend upon one another for the things of the mind; because science, art, medicine, music, literature, and invention recognize no national boundary lines. The science of today rests on the work of Copernicus, a Pole; Descartes, a Frenchman; Galileo, an Italian; and Newton, an Englishman. Jenner, an English physician, found the way to prevent smallpox; Pasteur, a French scientist, learned that germs cause disease; Reed and Gorgas, American surgeons, discovered how to destroy yellow fever. In the field of invention England contributed the steam engine and the power loom; America, the telegraph, airplane, and automobile; Italy, the telescope and the wireless; Germany, the printing press and X-ray photography. Even in the celebration of a holiday nations depend on one another for customs that lend charm to the occasion. At Christmas we owe the holly and mistletoe to England, the fir tree to Germany, "Silent Night" to the Tyrol, St. Nicholas and Santa Claus to the Netherlands.



VALUE OF AMERICAN TRADE

What industries in your community would be injured if our trade with the rest of the world were cut off?

Shrinking of the world. The old independence of pioneer and colonial days is gone forever. At that time business

was limited largely to the immediate locality; now it is world-wide. In those days a fast-sailing vessel needed a month to cross the Atlantic; now airplanes have made the trip in twenty-four hours. Then, a message could be exchanged with Europe only after a lapse of six weeks;

WORLD ATHLETIC CONTEST

Representatives from almost every country in the world meet at the Olympic games. In this picture of the opening parade of all the athletes, the American participants are in the foreground, the champion women's swimming team being dressed in white. How do contests of strength and skill promote international friendship?

today cable and radio carry communications with the swiftness of thought. At that time far-off events were not known for weeks or even months; now such news is common knowledge a few hours after the events occur. The resultant shrinking of the world has greatly enriched human life. But the change has also brought us new problems and increased the seriousness of old ones.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name the different nations that contributed to your dinner. What lands played a part in furnishing your living room at home?

2. Mention factories in your community which would have to shut their doors if we were cut off from other nations.

3. If we had no foreign commerce, who would suffer more — the people of the city or the people of the country? Give reasons.

4. Mention five pictures, five musical selections, and five works of literature for which we are indebted to other countries.

5. Do you think the nations of 1950 will be more dependent or less dependent upon one another than the nations are today? Give reasons.

SECTION II. WAR

Teamwork among nations. The interdependence of nations causes them to work together in many ways. As shown in the preceding section, they exchange products, share scientific discoveries, and enjoy in common the products of writers, musicians, and artists. Nations also coöperate in promoting and protecting mutual interests. Through international agreements the citizens of different countries can mail letters, magazines, and parcels to all parts of the world; criminals fleeing from one country to another are arrested and returned for punishment to the country from which they fled; persons receiving patents, trademarks, and copyrights are protected in practically all lands.

Conflicts among nations. In spite of coöperating in many enterprises the peoples of the earth have often had serious conflicts with one another. During the last three thousand years there are said to have been fewer than three hundred years of peace. During our short national life our own country has engaged in seven different conflicts with other lands and, in addition, has waged numerous wars with the Indians. The records of other countries are equally warlike.

Causes of war. What brings about war? At the bottom we find the same cause as that which lies behind difficulties between individuals — conflicts in interest. What one nation desires, another nation opposes; what one country has, another country covets; what one people strive for is considered harmful by another. Selfishness or self-interest is the root of all wars. Expressed in more definite terms, the main causes of international conflicts are trade rivalry, national pride, militarism, and fear or hatred.

DESTRUCTIVENESS OF MODERN WAR

Years were required to build this city; heavy shells destroyed it in a few minutes.

1. *Rivalry for markets.* The very dependence of nations on outside markets often leads to war. For example, the attempt of manufacturing nations to control the sources of rubber, oil, and timber frequently results in rivalry, friction, and struggle. In like manner the efforts of industrial countries to secure special advantages for the sale of their products ends at times in hostilities.

2. *National pride.* False national pride is a second cause of conflict. When any people come to think of themselves as superior to all other nations, they are likely to arouse

antagonism by their overbearing manner. They are also likely to become irritable in their dealings with their neighbors. When such conditions exist, some petty incident often appears as an insult which can be avenged only by war.

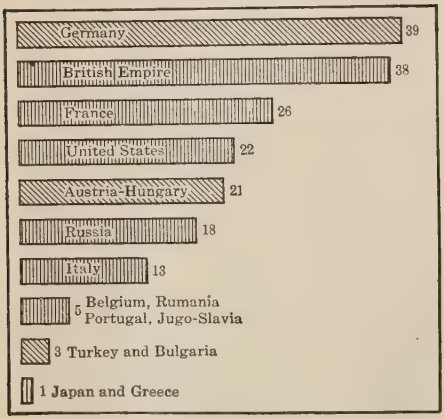
3. *Militarism.* Militarism is a third cause of war. A country that possesses a large army or navy is tempted to use it. Under such circumstances a dispute which otherwise might have been settled peaceably ends often in conflict. As a noted writer says, "To whomsoever God gives an army, He sooner or later gives the war belonging thereto."

4. *Fear and hate.* A fourth cause of conflict is fear, suspicion, and hatred. Such attitudes sometimes result from past wars; sometimes they grow out of commercial and colonial rivalries; sometimes they come from contests in armaments, each nation arousing the fear and enmity of its neighbors by trying to outdo them in military strength. The fears thus created often result in conflict.

Modern warfare. Present-day methods of waging war differ greatly from the practices of early times. Long ago war was largely a conflict between individuals or, at the worst, between rival tribes. Such contests were not very destructive, for weapons were crude, the skill of the fighters was slight, and the defeated side could usually run away. In early wars few soldiers were killed in battle; even in our Civil War only one bullet out of twenty found a human target, a much larger number of soldiers dying of disease.

But modern warfare brings entire nations into a struggle — the men in the army or navy, the women in the shops and factories. Even the boys and girls contribute by making bandages and hospital supplies. Instead of armies composed of a few thousand professional soldiers, modern military forces are made up of millions of citizens who at the call to the colors drop their daily tasks and go to the training camp. Instead of battles lasting a day or two, modern military engagements continue for months. The

field of operations, instead of covering a few square miles, consists of systems of trenches, running in zigzag parallels and extending at times for hundreds of miles. In years gone by only the soldiers suffered from shot and shell; in modern warfare airplanes and airships shower death and destruction far behind the battle lines, on women and children who in former times would have been untouched by the conflict.



THE COST OF THE WORLD WAR

The direct cost of the World War is estimated at $186,000,000,000. The chart shows, in billions of dollars, the war expenses of each of the leading nations.

Nowadays men fight with poison gas, high explosives, burning oil, bombs, tanks, and submarines. The artillery includes guns which can hurl shells, each weighing more than a ton, a distance of over thirty miles, while machine guns firing 1500 shots a minute are regular army equipment. Thomas A. Edison declares that we now have poison gases so deadly as to destroy a city like London in three hours. Some scientists believe that future wars will be fought with disease germs. One authority says, "We have since the war discovered and developed germs which, dropped down upon cities and armies, will slaughter a nation in a day."

The cost of war. It is difficult to see how some past wars could have been avoided without one of the combatants submitting, for the sake of peace, to oppression and wrong. Such was the situation faced by our ancestors at the time of the American Revolution, and by Belgium at the beginning of the World War. In both instances the Americans

and the Belgians determined to fight rather than yield to injustice. And we honor them for their decision! But however righteous a war may be, the cost of the conflict is enormous and depressing.

1. *War destroys property.* During the World War almost 1,000,000 buildings and 5000 factories were destroyed in

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THE COST IN SUFFERING

With their homes destroyed and the entire vicinity made unsafe by bombardments, these women and children are forced to flee they know not where.

France alone. The direct cost of the struggle to all nations, according to a careful estimate, was over $186,000,000,000; the indirect costs make the total almost $338,000,000,000. Although the United States was in the conflict less than two years, we spent almost as much as the total expenditures of the national government from its foundation until the beginning of the World War. All the gold mined in the entire world since the discovery of America would pay only two thirds of our war bill. War destroys property.

2. *War brings debt and taxes.* During a great struggle warring countries cannot meet their expenses out of ordinary sources of income. In spite of heavy increases in taxation the largest part of the cost must be met by borrowed funds and must be paid by later generations.

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THE COST IN TAXES

The cost of a modern warship like the electric airplane-carrier U. S. S. *Saratoga* is over forty million dollars, or three times the cost of the national Capitol at Washington. The *Saratoga* and its sister ship, the *Lexington*, carry over seventy airplanes each. They are the largest and most powerful naval vessels afloat.

Our Civil War, which ended in 1865, has not been entirely paid for at the present time. The World War, which cost us on the average more than $1,000,000 an hour for the two years we were in the conflict, may be a burden for a century or longer. At the present time over 80 per cent of our national taxes, it is said, goes to pay for past wars or preparation for future wars. War brings debt and taxes.

3. *War destroys life.* The World War cost 26,000,000 people their lives. It was also responsible for 20,000,000 wounded, 9,000,000 orphans, 5,000,000 widows, and 10,000,000 refugees. Deaths in battle were greater than the deaths in all preceding wars for more than a hundred years. More than 50,000 Americans died at the front, and for every soldier killed in action, another died of disease, and six more were wounded, taken prisoners, or reported missing. The suffering represented by the figures given above cannot be measured. War destroys life.

4. *War causes hatred.* But the worst effect of war is not debt, destruction of property, or even loss of life, appalling as such results are. The most tragic outcome is the hatred that follows almost every great conflict. Bitterness and desire for revenge are especially likely to exist if the victor treats the vanquished with harshness and injustice. Conflicts between the French and the Germans have long caused both nations to eye one another with suspicion. In like manner past struggles have embittered the relations of Poles and Russians, Americans and Mexicans, Chinese and Japanese. Too often wars leave behind them the seeds of future wars.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention one example of international teamwork not given in the first two paragraphs of the section.

2. Name in the order of occurrence the wars in which our country has taken part. Explain the chief cause of each war (consult an American history). Should you state the cause of each war in just the same way if you were a citizen of the opposing country? Explain.

3. Can you suggest a way by which any of our wars might have been prevented without a sacrifice of right?

4. Which of the four causes of war discussed in this section seems the most important? Give reasons.

5. Why is modern warfare more destructive than the conflicts of early days? What seems to be the worst result of war? Why?

Section III. Peace

War or civilization — which? Many centuries ago, says an old legend, a great scientist invented a marvelous machine in human form. The invention had gigantic strength, uncanny ability, tireless energy, and more than human intelligence. But it lacked a soul. For a time the monster did its master's bidding; then, escaping from control, it killed its master's friend, murdered his brother, slaughtered his bride, and finally destroyed its own creator.

Man has developed a wonderful civilization. He has built cities, tunneled mountains, erected cathedrals, founded universities, and has gained control over the forces of nature. But his industry, literature, and science are in danger of being destroyed by the terrible machines and devices that he has invented for making war. So destructive, indeed, are the weapons of modern warfare that unless we can find a way to destroy war, war threatens to destroy us.

Nations have long known the evils of war. They have tried to control its ravages by regulating its conduct, have attempted to lessen or remove causes of trouble, and have endeavored to develop ways of maintaining peace and promoting friendship. The main agencies they have used and the chief proposals they have considered for promoting friendly understanding are international law, arbitration, associations of nations, and disarmament.

1. *International law.* Even primitive communities saw the need for rules to govern their relations with one another. Only the most savage tribes failed to give protection to a messenger, or ambassador, from another tribe. Before making war they showed their hostile intentions by daubing themselves with paint, hurling a spear dipped in blood into the camp of their foes, or sending their enemies a bundle of arrows tied with a rattlesnake skin; usually they were equally careful to keep the treaties into which they entered.

With the passing of time the rules governing the relations of tribes and peoples developed into international law, embracing principles for the settlement of disputes between nations and regulating the conduct of war, the treatment of prisoners, and the rights and duties of neutrals.

2 *Arbitration.* But international law has two serious weaknesses: first, there is no judge, or court, to which the nations must submit their disagreements; secondly, there is no police force to compel obedience to judicial decisions if such a court existed.

The seriousness of the two weaknesses will appear from an illustration. If Jones and Smith have a dispute over the ownership of a tract of land, either man can take the controversy to court and both will be bound by the court's decision; if either man refuses to obey the court, the sheriff or marshal will enforce the decree in spite of opposition. Moreover, if the two men attempt to settle their disagreement by a duel both will be arrested and punished. But if China and Japan were to quarrel over the possession of an island, neither country could take the controversy to court without the consent of the other. Even if such action could be taken by one country, the other country would not need to pay attention to the court, since no police force exists to carry out the decision. In such a dispute there are three possible outcomes: (1) one country might surrender the island to the other; (2) the two countries might go to war for the island; (3) the two countries might agree to submit the dispute to a third party and accept the decision, whatever it might be.

The last possibility is called arbitration. Almost five hundred international controversies were settled by this method during the nineteenth century. Our own country has used arbitration more than eighty times in the last hundred years. International conferences held at The Hague in 1899 and 1907 promoted the cause of arbitration by establishing the Hague Tribunal. Countries that have

so agreed may choose from the judges composing the Tribunal arbitrators to decide a controversy. Mexico and the United States had the honor to be the first countries to submit a dispute to the Hague Tribunal. Many other nations have followed their example during the last twenty years. But the Hague Tribunal, helpful though it has proved, is no court; it is merely a list of one hundred and thirty-five men, living in all parts of the world, practicing law, writing books, and acting as judges in the courts of their own country. Only when selected as arbitrators do any of the judges come together, organize as a court, and render a decision in an international controversy.

The weakness of the arrangement caused President Roosevelt to instruct the American delegates to the second Hague Conference (1907) to try to persuade the Conference to change the Tribunal into a permanent court "composed of judges who are judicial officers and nothing else, who are paid adequate salaries, who have no other occupations, and who will devote their entire time to the trial and decision of international causes." But the nations could not agree upon a plan for the choice of judges, and nothing came from the efforts of the American delegates.

The defect was remedied in 1922 by the creation of a Permanent Court of International Justice, commonly called the World Court. The World Court, which does not displace the Hague Tribunal, consists of eleven judges and four alternates to serve in the absence of any of the eleven. The judges are nominated by the Hague Tribunal and are elected for terms of nine years by the Council and Assembly of the League of Nations, each body voting separately. The World Court acts only on cases which two or more countries agree to submit to it. During the first two years of its existence the Court settled more disputes than did our own Supreme Court in the first two years of its history. After much hesitation the United States Senate voted (1926) to join the Court, subject to certain reservations. Several

nations belonging to the Court failed to agree to the reservations, however, and the United States therefore is not an adherent.

3. *An association of nations.* Arbitration is a voluntary matter. No country can be compelled to submit to judicial decision a dispute with another country. The refusal of Austria to arbitrate her controversy with Serbia was one of the events which led to the World War. Our own country has never been willing to submit all differences with other countries to arbitration.

The horrors of the World War convinced many people that some kind of society or association of nations must be formed if future wars were to be prevented. Out of this feeling there developed at the Peace Conference (1919) the League of Nations. The chief objects of the League are to promote international peace, security, and coöperation. The machinery of the League consists of (1) a permanent Secretariat, or business office, at Geneva, Switzerland (the headquarters of the League), to collect information, perform all clerical work, and record all treaties; (2) an Assembly, in which all member countries have equal power to deal with any matter affecting the peace of the world; and (3) a Council composed of representatives appointed by the great powers and of delegates from the smaller countries elected by the Assembly to carry out the measures of the Assembly and to serve as an executive committee of the League. With four exceptions, all decisions of the Assembly or the Council require a unanimous vote.

The members of the League agree (1) to respect and protect against external attack one another's territory and independence; (2) to submit disputes which cannot be settled by diplomacy to arbitration or to the Council for investigation; (3) to begin no war with one another until three months after the Council reports upon the investigation just mentioned; (4) to boycott any member nation that violates the two preceding agreements, the Council

to advise concerning the use of armed force against the offending country; (5) to register with the Secretariat all treaties, no treaty to be considered binding until registration has taken place.

The League has general supervision over certain territories and over various international boards and bureaus. It has taken steps to promote health, disarmament, the fair treatment of labor in all countries, and the suppression of the opium traffic. The League has no army, navy, or police force, nor can it levy taxes for any purpose. Its greatest power is to make recommendations to the member nations. But in spite of lack of authority the League has a record of achievement. During its first six years it helped to prevent seven wars, saved three countries from financial ruin, limited the opium traffic, checked the spread of disease from country to country, and aided in establishing the World Court. The membership of the League now includes fifty-five nations, comprising more than four fifths of the population of the world. So far the United States has been unwilling to join the association. The chief causes for our refusal seem to have been opposition to President Wilson, dislike of the peace terms which ended the World War, and fear of entanglement in the affairs of Europe.

4. *Disarmament.* Rivalry in armies, navies, and military equipment, as we have seen (page 147), has often contributed to the making of war. Realizing this fact, the first Hague Conference discussed plans to reduce armaments, but the delegates from a number of nations objected strongly, and no action was taken. Twenty years later the Covenant of the League of Nations included a provision directing the Council to recommend the size of the armed forces needed by each nation. It also contained an agreement by which the member nations promised to inform one another concerning their plans for armament. Acting on the foregoing authority, the Council shortly after its organization established a Commission to study disarmament. But the

problem proved so difficult in the years immediately following the World War that no recommendations were made, and the European armies remained larger and more powerful than they had been before the great conflict.

Navies also increased in both size and cost. In 1921 the United States alone appropriated almost $500,000,000 for its navy. Feeling that the time had come to put an end to the race for naval power, President Harding invited Great Britain, Japan, France, Italy, and four other countries to send delegates to a conference to discuss the limitation of naval armaments. The gathering, which met in Washington from November, 1921, to February, 1922, agreed (1) to reduce existing navies by destroying sixty-eight vessels already built or building; (2) to fix the future strength in battleships of the principal navies (United States, Great Britain, Japan, France, and Italy) in a ratio ordinarily expressed as 5 : 5 : 3 : 2 : 2; (3) to stop the building of battleships, except for replacements, for the next ten years. The conference also decided that in future wars poisonous gases were not to be used, nor were submarines to be employed against merchant ships without providing protection for passengers and crew.

Unfortunately no agreement was reached concerning the building of seaplanes, submarines, or naval vessels under 10,000 tons. Nor was any action taken to reduce armies and war supplies. A conference to consider all naval questions, it is expected, will meet in 1931, or sooner, before the Washington agreement expires.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How does modern warfare threaten the existence of civilization? What is civilization? What is its opposite?

2. What is arbitration? Tell about a dispute you once arbitrated.

3. What is the chief difference between the Hague Tribunal and the World Court?

4. The members of the League of Nations agree to submit any controversy which they are unwilling to arbitrate to the Council for investigation and to begin no war with one another until three months after the Council has given its report. Explain the advantage of the three months' delay.

5. Why do nations hesitate to disarm? Suggest a way of overcoming the chief obstacle.

6. *Research topics for volunteers:*
   a. Hugo Grotius and his work.
   b. American winners of the Nobel Peace Prize.
   c. American reservations to the World Court treaty.

Section IV. What we can do to promote World Friendship

Good will. International law, arbitration, disarmament, and world organizations all have value in preventing war. But more important than any of them is *the will for peace.* If *good will* exists, devices and methods can always be developed. To the promotion of good will between nations we can all contribute in four ways:

1. *We can try to understand other nations.* On one occasion, so the story goes, Charles Lamb was talking with a friend. During the conversation a certain man was mentioned. At once Lamb exclaimed, "I hate him!" "Why, I didn't know you knew him," came the reply. "I don't," returned Lamb; "I can't hate anyone I know."

Dislike and hatred usually grow out of ignorance. Persons who have traveled widely or lived long in other countries are seldom prejudiced against the people who dwell there. Acquaintance generally brings appreciation and understanding. We may not be able to travel abroad, but we can learn of other countries by reading their history and literature and by studying their science, music, and art. As we come to know them, we shall come to understand them. Certainly, to quote President Coolidge, "We can make little

contribution to the welfare of humanity on the theory that we are a superior people and all others are an inferior people."

2. *We can speak well of other countries.* If we become acquainted with other countries, we shall have no trouble in speaking well of them, for we shall find charm even in the differences between their manners and traits and our own habits and characteristics. Indeed, we shall discover that much that gives variety to life in our own country originated in foreign lands. As we learn of our debts to other nations, we shall have no trouble in expressing our respect and admiration for them.

3. *We can be friendly and courteous to foreigners.* At no time in the history of the world has traveling been so widespread and common as it is today. People from all parts of the world constantly visit the United States. As they return to their own country, they carry back few memories more pleasant than the recollections of kind and courteous treatment they received when far from home. We can create friends for our country by being friendly to foreigners.

4. *We can use our influence for peace.* We may be able to do very little, but the little that we do is sometimes more important than we think it is. To speak a good word for arbitration, to oppose national narrowness and prejudice, to uphold all that makes for good relations between nations, is to help to bring about peace.

Summary. Nations depend on one another for food, manufactured goods, and raw materials. They share their discoveries and achievements in art, science, literature, music, and industry. Owing to improvements in transportation and communication, their interdependence is greater today than ever before. But the teamwork which has grown out of mutual interests has been ruined ofttimes by wars so destructive as to threaten the very existence of civilization. The main root of such conflicts is national selfishness, appearing usually in trade rivalries, colonial ambitions, national pride, and competition in armaments.

Realizing the cost of war in property, debt, taxation, and loss of life, the nations have tried to prevent conflicts by the development of international law, arbitration, world organization, and reduction of armaments. The most notable achievements in recent years in arbitration and world organization are the formation of the League of Nations and the creation of the World Court. The greatest need in establishing international friendship is good will. We can all help to develop good will by trying to understand other countries, by speaking well of them, by being friendly to foreigners, and by using our influence for honorable peace.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Give examples of the interdependence of nations in (1) industry, (2) invention, (3) science. How does the daily newspaper reveal international interdependence?

2. Tell how each section of Chapter I is illustrated by the relations of nations to one another.

3. Suggest four ways by which members of the class can learn about the industries, amusements, and arts of other countries.

4. If you were not an American, to what nationality should you prefer to belong? Give reasons.

5. Suggest one way by which your school can help to promote international friendship.

6. Mention examples of international sport. How do such contests affect the friendship of nations? Give reasons.

THINGS TO DO

1. On an outline map of the world locate the countries mentioned in the paragraph beginning at the bottom of page 141.

2. On an outline map of the world print in the proper places the names of the foods, fabrics, and other articles for which you depend on other countries. Use one color to indicate foods, a second for fabrics, and a third for other articles.

3. Mount in a scrapbook, under the titles that follow, clippings, cartoons, pictures, maps, and drawings illustrating: (1) international interdependence; (2) international friction; (3) international coöperation.

4. Have an exhibit of interesting articles from foreign lands, each member of the class telling about the object he brings from home.

5. Secure from the Junior American Red Cross Society, Washington, D.C., lists of pupils in foreign schools with whom the members of the class can correspond.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "Preparing for Possible Wars," *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, 244–255.
2. "A Little Kansas Leaven," D. C. Fisher, *America's Message*, 276–308.
3. "The Peaceful Warrior," H. van Dyke, *ibid.*, 309–310.
4. "My Lady Liberty," C. Barnard, *In Our Times*, 68–72.
5. * "Things I Like in America," Sir P. Gibbs, *ibid.*, 96–103.
6. "A Westerner on Foreign Relations," W. J. Bryan, *ibid.*, 282–284.
7. "Need for a League of Nations," W. Wilson, *ibid.*, 386–387.
8. "In Flanders Fields," J. McCrae, *ibid.*, 413.
9. * "The Americans Come," E. A. Wilbur, *ibid.*, 424–425.
10. "Elihu Root, Winner of the Nobel Peace Prize," *Modern Great Americans*, 220–233.
11. "The Department of State," *The American Government*, 67–78.
12. "The Pan American Union," *ibid.*, 467–472.
13. "Arbitration," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, I, 172–173.
14. * "Ties of Trade that Unite the World," *ibid.*, II, 852–853.
15. "Hymns that Fire the Hearts of Nations," *ibid.*, VI, 2404–2405.
16. "The Bird of Peace and His Relatives," *ibid.*, VII, 2803–2806.
17. "When the World Sits Down to Tea," *ibid.*, VIII, 3445–3450.
18. "Our Neighbors in Other Lands," *Readings in Community Life*, Part I, section 7.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Travel, Essay

1. * *All the Way 'Round*, by Edith O. Harrison. McClurg.
2. *A Boy in Bruges*, by Emile Cammaerts. Dutton.
3. *Vagabonding Down the Andes*, by Harry A. Franck. Century.
4. *The Cart of Many Colors*, by Nannine Meiklejohn. Dutton.

5. * *Smiling 'round the World,* by Marshall P. Wilder. Funk.
6. *Boys of Other Countries,* by Bayard Taylor. Putnam.
7. *The Spires of America,* by Abram R. Brubaker. Doubleday.
8. * *Heroes of Peace,* by Frederick J. Fould. Harper.
9. * *The Book of Bravery* (third series), by Sidney Lanier. Scribner.
10. *Leaders of the Great War,* by Cora W. Rowell. Macmillan.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *Treasure Flower,* by Ruth Gaines. Dutton.
2. *The Village Shield,* by Ruth Gaines and G. W. Read. Dutton.
3. * *The Story of the Other Wise Man,* by Henry van Dyke. Scribner.
4. * *Marching On,* by James Boyd. Scribner.
5. *Wisp, a Girl of Dublin,* by Kathleen Adams. Macmillan.
6. *Camp Ken-Jockety,* by Ethel Bennett. Houghton.
7. *Jackanapes and Other Stories,* by Julia H. O. Ewing. Ginn.
8. *Peace and Patriotism,* by Elva S. Smith. Lothrop.
9. *Drums,* by James Boyd. Scribner.
10. *The Dark Forest,* by Hugh Walpole. Doran.
11. *The Post of Honour,* by Richard Wilson. Dent.
12. *Ships across the Sea,* by Ralph D. Paine. Houghton.

PART TWO. COMMUNITY WELFARE

CHAPTER VIII

SAFEGUARDING HEALTH

No treasure equals charity;
Content is perfect wealth;
No gem compares with character;
No wish fulfilled, with health.

THE PANCHATANTRA

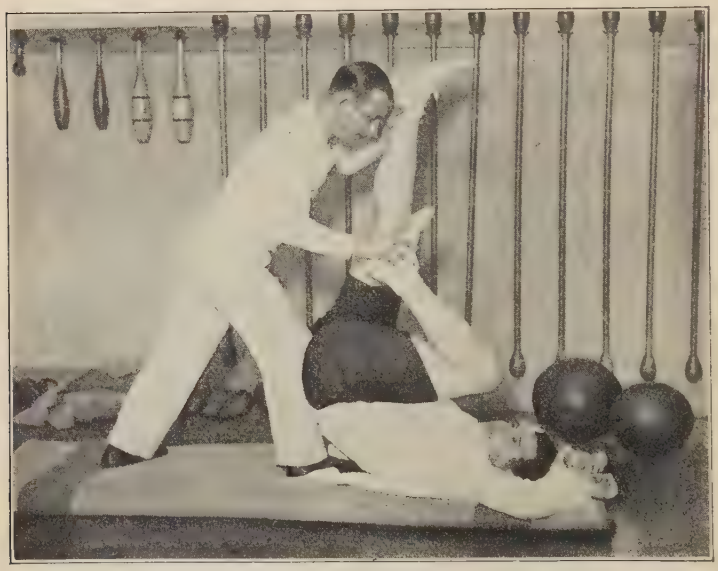
SECTION I. WHAT HEALTH IS WORTH

Health and success. "Health costs effort, but health is worth the effort it costs." Anyone who has been through a long and painful illness knows the truth of the foregoing words. He says, with Emerson, "Give me health and a day, and I will make the pomp of emperors ridiculous."

Health is necessary for play, work, and study. Did you ever take part in a game of tennis when you had a tooth-ache? or attempt to study when you were suffering from eating too much pie or pudding? If so, you know there is little fun in sport and no satisfaction in work when you are in pain.

Famous persons, it is true, have sometimes accomplished hard tasks in spite of suffering and sickness. Afflicted with a painful and incurable disease, General Grant labored at his "Memoirs" day after day for a year and a half before his death. An invalid for years, tortured with rheumatism, threatened with deafness, and half-blind, the historian Prescott toiled cheerily for more than thirty years, much of the time in a darkened room, producing one by one his matchless volumes of history. In like manner Robert Louis Stevenson penned story after story long after the doctors had despaired of his life. With death knocking at the door,

Robert Falcon Scott, the explorer, wrote on at his undying tale until the cold of the Antarctic stilled his heart and stopped his pen forever. But, inspiring as such examples are, they merely show by contrast how much more might have been done had these people been well and strong.



HEALTH COSTS EFFORT

Babe Ruth's famous home-run record took a disastrous slump a few years ago because of his impaired health. But through tireless effort he regained his power and became once more the idol of baseball fans. He is shown here undergoing strenuous exercises to keep in condition for the big league games.

Health and the army. No man understood the importance of health better than Theodore Roosevelt. When president, rumors once reached him that many army officers were physically unfit for service. Finding by personal investigation that the rumors seemed true, he ordered every officer to prove himself physically able by walking 50 miles, or by riding on horseback 90 miles, or by making a bicycle trip of 100 miles in three consecutive days. Roosevelt was

at once criticized for the "unreasonableness of the order." To show that the test was not unfair, the President, accompanied by three officers, rode one wintry day, during which both snow and sleet fell, 104 miles in twelve hours. Roosevelt's feat ended the criticism of the order; a number of officers, unable to meet the requirement, resigned; and

WASH BEHIND YOUR EARS, BUDDIES

Cleanliness is next to godliness in the army because experience has proved that cleanliness prevents sickness among the soldiers and at the same time raises their morale.

the physical condition of the troops notably improved as a result of the increased attention to health and exercise.

In a modern army the health of the soldiers is protected as never before. During the World War drinking-water in the camps was analyzed, food was inspected, waste and sewage were carefully disposed of, tents and buildings were kept as clean as a Dutch kitchen. On joining the colors, recruits were quarantined, vaccinated against smallpox, and inoculated against typhoid and diphtheria. Everything known to medical science was done to protect the health of

the men and, as a result, deaths from disease were fewer than in any of our previous wars. In the Mexican War the annual death rate from disease was 110 in each 1000 soldiers; during the Civil War it was 65; in the Spanish War, 26. But during the World War it was only 15!

A FIRST-AID HOSPITAL

In this emergency hospital in a modern factory, the doctors and nurses are caring for an employee who has just been injured. Most industrial plants now maintain hospitals and many also employ nurses to visit the sick in their homes. Sometimes, too, a department of hygiene gives information and advice on how to keep well.

Health and industry. Factories, mines, and stores also give attention to health. Both employers and employees realize that it does not pay to be sick or to be injured. Up-to-date factories and stores are well lighted and ventilated, are equipped with safety devices to prevent accidents, and contain first-aid hospitals, rest rooms, and gymnasiums.

Cost of disease. In the United States 3,000,000 persons on the average are said to be on the sick list every day of the year. Since about 50 per cent of all sickness is preventable, almost a million and a half of people who might

be well and happy constantly suffer from disease. Our annual bill for sickness amounts roughly to $3,500,000,000, more than enough to run the national government an entire year. American workers lose in wages alone $250,000,000 annually because of illness. In addition to causing heavy financial loss and a great waste of time, disease shortens life, brings suffering, and is a source of distress to all concerned. "Health costs effort, but health is worth the effort it costs."

The lengthening of life. Prevention of disease and better observance of health laws have greatly increased the length of human life. In the days of the Cæsars the average human life was eighteen years; in the time of Shakespeare it was twenty-one years; during the rule of Cromwell it rose to twenty-five years; when Washington was president it increased to thirty-three years; by the end of the nineteenth century it had risen to forty years; just before the World War it was forty-six years; and today it is said to be sixty years.

Encouraging as the present average is, compared with that of earlier times, the record is no great cause for pride. Apparently, if we could avoid disease as well as does a horse, a cow, or even a fly, we should live several times sixty years. A horse grows until about three years of age and with good treatment will live to be thirty; a cow grows until two years of age and will live to be twenty; the period of growth of a fly is about two days and, unless killed by enemies, it will live twenty days. In short, unless such creatures meet a violent death, they live about ten times their growing-age. Now our period of growth is from eighteen to twenty years; if we did as well as the lower animals and lived ten times our growing-age, we should therefore live to be one hundred and eighty or even two hundred years old!

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Ask an athlete, a doctor, and a business man to give three reasons why health is important. Report their answers to the class.

2. Tell about anyone you know who has done important work in spite of poor health. Do such examples prove that good health is unimportant? Explain.

3. Tell about the longest-lived plants of which you know. What animals live longest? Can you account for the short-life average of the Romans?

4. What health education does your school give? Describe the health provisions and safety appliances in some factory or mill in your community. What health safeguards do you have at home?

5. Show the truth of this quotation: "Public health is public wealth."

Section II. Why the Community Needs to Guard Health

Effect of surroundings on health. If you will take a map of your community and put a black dot wherever the health reports show a death or a case of serious illness, you will have certain spotted areas. If you will visit such sections, you will discover that they are the dirtiest and most crowded districts in the community. And the darker and more crowded the district, the higher you will find the rate of sickness and death.

The explanation is simple. Disease and death are caused in large part by bad air, poor light, impure water, tainted food, and dirt. Such conditions in turn are usually the results of surroundings. And surroundings are generally controlled only by the community.

Few things, for example, injure health so quickly as do impure air and bad light. But pupils in a schoolroom have little control over either air or light. Ventilation may be good or bad; temperature, too high or too low; lighting,

ideal or wretched; and pupil, teacher, and, occasionally the janitor, may be helpless to remedy the difficulty. For the ventilating system of the building may be faulty, the heating plant defective, the windows wrongly placed and too few in number. Or the outside air may be full of bad odors from street and alley or contain smoke and soot from

AN IDEAL DAIRY

These placid jerseys live under the most sanitary conditions in this model dairy. Tile ceilings and floors, porcelain feeding troughs, and modern ventilators make the utmost cleanliness possible and assure a pure milk supply for the babies in the city.

neighboring railroads or factories. The quality of air and light is usually determined by surroundings which the community alone can control.

Environment also affects water, food, and clothing. A whole city suffered several years ago because a few factories dumped chemicals into Lake Michigan, the source of the city's water supply. Thousands of babies are poisoned every summer by milk from cows kept in unclean barns.

Clothes made in sweatshops by people suffering from tuberculosis have more than once carried deadly disease germs to the buyers. Unless persons suffering from diseases like scarlet fever and diphtheria are prevented from coming in touch with their neighbors, contagion will be likely to spread from house to house through the entire community.

WHO'S UNDERNOURISHED NOW?

For the benefit of undernourished children, many schools have established milk depots where at recess children may buy a bottle of milk and a cracker for a few cents. Everyone in this group looks healthy and happy, especially the milkman.

Prevention of disease by the community. The prevention or reduction of disease, therefore, requires action by the community. By turning the sewage away from Lake Michigan — the source of the city's water supply — Chicago lowered its death rate from typhoid from 173.8 for each 100,000 of population in 1891 to .7 in 1927. By improved inspection and treatment by the health department, New

York City reduced the number of deaths from tuberculosis from 427 out of each 100,000 of population in 1881 to 86.25 out of each 100,000 in 1927. Community action can usually prevent or check all such diseases as diphtheria, tuberculosis, typhoid, smallpox, yellow fever, whooping cough, malaria, and cholera.

Since health, then, is largely a matter of surroundings, only the community can safeguard health. Unless society controls the causes of disease, sickness in the tenement will often destroy health in the mansion; carelessness in the dairy will lead to illness in the nursery. Now as never before we know that health is a community problem which can be dealt with successfully only by the community.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention the chief danger to health in your community and tell what the community is doing to meet the danger.

2. The death rate in one American city in 1924 was 20.4 to every 1000 of population, in another city it was only 8.8. Suggest conditions that may account for the great difference. What is the death rate in your community? What was it ten years ago? Find out what caused the change.

3. Examine the last annual health report of your community and find the six main causes for death during the past year. Rank the diseases in the order of their seriousness, representing each by appropriate bars (see page 148). Do the figures throw any light on the efficiency of your health department? Explain.

4. How is your school heated? How is it ventilated? How is it supplied with water? Tell how it safeguards the health of the pupils.

5. Does your community suffer from malarial fever? If so, tell what is being done to destroy the disease.

6. What is your community doing to destroy flies? What more might it do? Does your community require the use of screens to protect exposed food? If so, is the ordinance enforced?

Section III. How the Community protects Health

The war on disease. Life is a constant warfare against a host of unseen foes. These enemies are deadly in attack, tireless in effort, quick to take advantage of every weakness in our defenses. They lurk in the air, in the water, in food, and in the very soil under our feet. They are the disease-producing germs.

CLEANING THE STREETS

Disease germs thrive in dirt and are often blown about in the dust. This machine washes the street and stirs up no dust for the wind to scatter.

What are germs? How do they act? On what do they live? Why do they move from place to place?

Germs are animals and plants so tiny that they can be seen only with a microscope. They migrate for the same reasons we do: they go in search of food, conquest, and adventure. When food is plentiful, they multiply rapidly, but like human beings, they starve if they have nothing to eat. Disease germs have a strange diet, being especially fond of dirt and of decaying vegetable and animal matter. By putting such food out of their reach we make it impossible for them to live.

To resist the attacks of disease germs we depend upon a force of trained fighters, fitted by experience to battle the enemy. Every progressive community contains fighters of disease who are organized much like an army under a commander and lower officers, with watchmen and sentries,

grouped in divisions and in sections, each with definite responsibilities and all working together to protect the public health.

Local health agencies. Villages, towns, cities, and counties usually have boards or departments to deal with all matters affecting health. In cities the head of the board, who is usually appointed by the mayor, provides for inspection of food, disposal of garbage, quarantine measures in case of contagious disease, and the enforcement of health regulations.

A HEALTH-DEPARTMENT LABORATORY

Two widely different activities of a department of health are shown in these pictures. In the first a bacteriologist is analyzing samples of the city's water supply to make sure that the water contains no harmful germs. In the second a chemist is taking serum from the ear of a rabbit to use in detecting human bloodstains, thus helping the police to solve mysterious crimes.

He is aided in his work by many assistants. Specialists in the municipal laboratory, one of the divisions of the health department, guard the water supply against impurities and disease germs; inspect milk, meat, eggs, and other foods; examine specimens in cases where contagion is suspected; test samples of air from theaters, churches, and public halls; and help the police ferret out crime by analyzing poisons, drugs, and bloodstains. Private physicians, as well as public inspectors and nurses employed by the board, serve as watchmen and sentries of the department of health, reporting births, deaths, and cases of contagious disease.

Health departments often provide free medical examination for children in the schools and give free treatment for such physical defects as diseased tonsils, decayed teeth, and adenoids. Their activities include the examination of the ventilation of schoolhouses, churches, theaters, stores, and factories, and the distribution of information about health.

State health agencies. North Carolina is a good example of the work of the state in protecting health. At the head of the state board of health is a commissioner, who is assisted by several lesser officials. Under his supervision are a laboratory of hygiene and a sanatorium. The commissioner sees that information is distributed on rural health, soil pollution, and dangerous diseases, using for the purpose, among other means, "a portable motion-picture outfit suitable for work in rural districts, a series of illustrated lectures, traveling exhibits, and an extensive press service. The motion-picture films reach many people who read very little and give them in simple form the principles of sanitation and disease prevention. The picture show makes the rounds of rural schools in an automobile which carries an extra engine to run the lights and furnish power for the pictures."

The state board has established rules for the control of contagious diseases. It also provides means for typhoid inoculation, assists in campaigns to destroy hookworm, and furnishes every school child a free medical examination at least once in three years.

National health agencies. The national government also helps in the war on disease. The Children's Bureau of the national government does much to improve the health of children. The Bureau of Education circulates valuable information on health topics. Most important of all, the Public Health Service guards the country from diseases which originate in other parts of the world, assists states and cities which have serious outbreaks of contagion,

stamps out epidemics in our territorial possessions, and, through its scientific discoveries, aids all mankind. Public health is also protected by the work of the International Health Organization of the League of Nations.

Private health agencies. Private organizations give aid to public health agencies by investigating the causes and remedies of disease, distributing information on hygienic questions, and coöperating in many ways in times of need. Among the most notable private health organizations are the National Child Welfare Association, the Child Health Association, the American Medical Association, the Anti-tuberculosis Association, and the American Red Cross.

HEALTH FROM SUNSHINE

These boys, who are patients in a New York hospital, are taking the sun cure for tuberculosis. At the same time they are developing skill in carpentry. Although it is winter the boys work outdoors with almost the entire body exposed to the sun's rays.

Problems of health. Our chief problems of health, as we have seen, are connected with air, light, water, food, and disease. Each may become a serious danger to the community.

1. *Air and light.* Nothing is more important to health than pure air and sunlight. The chief enemies of air and light are dust and smoke, which come in large part from streets, factories, apartment buildings, locomotives, and steamships. Some communities have lessened the dust

evil by making their streets and roads practically dustless, by sprinkling them with water, or by covering them with oil or a tar preparation. Most cities have laws prohibiting excessive smoke, but such regulations often fail because the community does not insist upon their enforcement. Careful firing methods, the use of smoke-consumers, and the electrifying of railways would soon stop the smoke evil and in the end would save money to those whose practices pollute the air, for smoke is nothing but unburned fuel.

2. *Water.* Next to air and light, probably the greatest concern of any community is its water supply. Water should be pure, abundant, and cheap. Impure water contains disease germs and is one of the chief sources of typhoid, dysentery, and cholera. Since cleanliness of person, clothing, house, and surroundings is necessary for health, an inadequate or an expensive supply of water leads to disease. An abundance of water is necessary also for fighting fires, for laundry work, and for most kinds of manufacturing.

Modern cities have gone to great trouble and have spent huge sums of money to secure an abundance of pure, fresh water. Chicago turned the current of the Chicago River from Lake Michigan toward the Mississippi and also built a large drainage canal in order to secure a pure-water supply. Los Angeles brings its water in great steel tubes through tunnels, over mountains, and across deserts, for over two hundred miles. New York, at an expense of almost $100,000,000, constructed an aqueduct from the Catskill Mountains, more than a hundred miles away.

3. *Pure food.* A buyer of groceries and meats has no sure way to protect himself against bad goods. Chemicals will change spoiled foods so as to hide anything offensive to the taste or smell. Moreover, most purchasers cannot tell the difference between genuine articles and substitutes. To remedy such evils Congress passed the Pure Food and

Drugs Act, forbidding the shipment from one state to another of any food or drug bearing a false label or containing anything injurious to health. In addition, both the national and the local government have inspectors to examine milk, meat, and eggs, and to prevent the sale of harmful food.

4. *Wastes.* Each family in a community cannot get rid of its own ashes, garbage, and sewage. Only the town or the city can provide in a practical way for building sewers and for carting away refuse. Where the community does not make such provisions, filth and disease abound.

OUR FRIEND THE HEALTH OFFICER

This pleasant-faced officer spends much of his time tacking up whooping-cough, measles, and scarlet-fever signs. To prevent an outbreak of disease, he is here placing a quarantine on houses that have recently been flooded.

In the old days few cities made any attempt to dispose of waste matter. Houses were crowded close together to save the expense of building the city walls around a larger area than was necessary. The streets, which were narrow and full of mudholes, were often the only places for slops and rubbish. Many a passer-by — occasionally a noble or even the king himself — was unexpectedly drenched by dirty water thrown from the doorway by a careless housewife. The streets were frightful. Often they could not be used by carts, wagons, or horses. They filled the air with disgusting odors and were breeders of disease. But as centuries went by, reforms were gradually introduced, until now in most places garbage and waste are disposed of by the community.

5. *Epidemics.* In the old days epidemics causing thousands of deaths were common. The Black Death, or plague, which ravaged Europe between 1347 and 1351, is estimated to have killed 25,000,000 people, or from one third to one half the total population of Europe. This terrible pestilence destroyed whole families. In some villages it left hardly enough people to care for the sick and bury the dead.

Smallpox was even more feared than the plague. The plague came only once or twice in a century, but smallpox was always present. Before vaccination was introduced, smallpox claimed half a million victims in Europe every year. Nine out of every ten persons were disfigured by the disease. So unusual was the sight of a lovely woman with a face unscarred by smallpox, that her carriage would be stopped in the streets by crowds eager to gaze on her beauty. The disease was so common that the poet Ben Jonson wrote of it:

> Envious and foul disease, could there not be
> One beauty in an age and free from thee?

People used to believe that pestilences, like the plague and smallpox, were punishments from God. But with wider knowledge of disease they learned that such calamities were the results of their own ignorance, carelessness, or neglect. Not until fifty years ago, however, when Louis Pasteur, the great French scientist, discovered that germs cause contagious disease, did people learn how to fight epidemics successfully. As the result of the work of men like Jenner, who discovered vaccination for smallpox, Reed, who proved that yellow fever is carried by the "tiger" mosquito, and Pasteur, who laid the foundation for modern sanitation, the plagues that formerly slaughtered mankind can now usually be prevented. Vaccination, inoculation, and proper quarantine measures may in time put an end to all contagious diseases.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why is no one allowed to practice medicine without a license? Are nurses required to have licenses in your state?

2. What private health agencies are active in your community? Describe the work of one of them.

3. What is your community doing to protect the health of babies? Have you any visiting nurses? If so, describe their work.

4. Has your school health supervision? Are physical examinations made regularly by a physician?

5. Tell what your community is doing to prevent dust. To what uses is garbage sometimes put?

6. Mention ways in which boys and girls can help to keep their neighborhoods clean.

SECTION IV. YOUR PART IN PROMOTING HEALTH

Personal responsibility. No matter how well the community safeguards health, you must depend largely on yourself for strength and vigor. Usually you alone can control your hours of sleep, your exercise, what you eat and drink, and your daily habits. The safeguards of the community cannot help you unless you are willing to do your part by obeying the laws of health.

No one understood this better than Theodore Roosevelt, and no one ever made more determined and successful efforts to become strong. So puny and sickly as a child that he had to be kept out of school for months at a time, he was also so timid and nervous as to be unable to play or fight on equal terms with other boys of his own size or age. But through reading about the bold deeds of his ancestors and of the hardihood of the heroes of Valley Forge, he early conceived a great desire to become strong. Until nearly fourteen years old, however, he did little to carry out his ambition. Then came an incident that proved a turning point in his whole life.

While going to a summer resort alone, he encountered two boys about his own age but much stronger than he. They proceeded to make life miserable for him. When at last he tried to fight them, he found to his chagrin that either lad could handle him easily without hurting him much, but in such manner as to prevent his doing any damage in return. Bitterly humiliated, he made up his mind that he would learn to defend himself so that he should never again be put in such a helpless position. With his father's permission, he at once began to learn to box. Training in boxing was followed in later years by wrestling, horseback riding, tennis, polo, and hunting, until Roosevelt became one of the most robust men of his time. Nothing but his iron physique carried him through a long hunting trip in Africa and a no less dangerous journey in South America. His strong constitution, splendid health, and steady nerves enabled him on one occasion to stand for over an hour, after receiving an assailant's bullet in his chest, and deliver a vigorous political address.

A CLOSE RACE

"Watch me win this race" is the determination of each of the three girls. But while only one can come in first, all are gaining health and strength by vigorous outdoor sport.

The laws of health. Many of us would find it hard to equal Roosevelt in physical prowess, but with few exceptions we can enjoy as good health if we are willing to pay an equal price in effort and perseverance. To bring about such a result we must obey the laws of health. The most important of these laws are given below:

1. *Breathe plenty of pure, fresh air.* Sleep with your windows open. Form the habit of deep breathing. Avoid badly ventilated rooms. Bad air brings headaches, paleness, and weariness. Tuberculosis causes one seventh of all deaths, but not one of its victims was a deep breather before he contracted the disease. Breathe plenty of pure, fresh air.

2. *Drink an abundance of pure water.* Six to eight glasses a day are not too many. Water purifies the blood and improves one's looks. Drink one or two glasses before breakfast, between meals, and before going to bed. Drink occasionally with meals, but do not wash your food down. Use ice water sparingly.

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A VIVID WARNING

This wrecked automobile was mounted on an elevated platform to warn other motorists of a dangerous crossing.

3. *Eat as much nourishing food as you need.* Four fifths of all disease comes from wrong eating. Avoid foods that cause trouble. Drink plenty of milk. Eat green vegetables. Have a balanced diet. Eat slowly, chewing your food thoroughly: nature did not equip the stomach with teeth. Stop eating when you have had enough.

4. *Sleep from eight to nine hours every night.* Without sleep no one can live. Sleep, in Shakespeare's words, is the "chief nourisher in life's feast." Go to bed early and at the same hour every night. Avoid heavy bed clothing and a large pillow. Give your body the rest it needs.

5. *Exercise every day in the open air.* Make your blood circulate vigorously. Bring all your muscles into action. Walk briskly, play wholeheartedly. Get plenty of sunlight. Have a good time out of doors. Be moderate. Don't overdo!

6. *Keep yourself clean.* Remember that disease germs have a happy time in dirt. Use plenty of clean water, soap, and muscle. Keep your hands and finger nails clean, and brush your teeth regularly. If you can do so, take a cold shower bath the first thing in the morning. Keep yourself clean.

A BOY-SCOUT PYRAMID

Along with woodcraft, campcraft, and chivalry, boy scouts learn the rules of health. All four of these lads are examples of vigor and good spirits.

Summary. Health is vital for success in study, work, and play. To a large extent health comes from fresh air, sunlight, pure water, wholesome food, and cleanliness. Since such things are all affected by environment, and since environment can usually be controlled only by the community, the public health must be protected by community action. Realizing this fact, local governments, aided by state and nation, have established agencies to guard our food supply, insure us pure air and pure water, dispose properly of garbage, and protect us from epidemics of disease. But no matter how well such agencies do their work, they cannot guarantee us good health; the responsibility for our own physical welfare rests chiefly upon ourselves.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Which of the laws of health given above is hardest for you to observe? Which is easiest?

2. How many days of school have you lost this year because of sickness? What is the average daily attendance in your school? What percentage of the absences was caused by illness? Choose a classmate to secure information at the school office. What effect do absences have on school work? on taxes?

3. How can one know when a room is badly ventilated? Tell how to ventilate a room properly.

4. How often should most people be examined by a physician? How often should one visit a dentist? Give reasons.

5. When you are out camping and are in doubt about the purity of the water, what can you do to make it safe?

6. Trace the drinking-water in your home to its source. Tell all that was done to insure its purity.

7. *Reports for volunteers:*

a. Germs that help us (consult the encyclopedia).

b. The work of the Rockefeller Foundation for Medical Research. Look in the encyclopedia, a newspaper almanac, or a report of the Foundation.

c. The life and work of one of the following men: Edward Jenner, Louis Pasteur, Joseph Lister, William C. Gorgas, Walter Reed, Jesse W. Lazear, Howard T. Ricketts.

d. The crusade against yellow fever. See Lyman and Hill's *Literature and Living*, Book One, 438–442.

e. The Public Health Service. *Lessons in Community and National Life*, Series B, 113–120.

THINGS TO DO

1. Make a graph showing the sickness in your school or class month by month during the present year. Use the information secured in No. 2 above.

2. Elect a committee of three boys to find from your local department of health the respects in which its work differs from that described on pages 175–176.

3. Elect one of the girls to write to your state department of health to secure information about its activities. Compare its work with that of the state board of North Carolina as given on page 176.

4. Elect one of the girls to find how your milk supply is protected and one of the boys to find how your water supply is guarded.

5. Choose one of the boys to find what is done with garbage in your community.

6. Bring newspaper clippings or pictures illustrating dangers to health or safeguards for health in your community.

7. Suggest a meal that will illustrate a "balanced diet."

8. Plan a "Clean-Up, Paint-Up" Campaign in your neighborhood. Have committees to prepare slogans, make posters, write articles for the local newspapers, distribute circulars, clean the school yard, and clear up alleys and vacant lots.

9. Write a verse about desirable health activities or habits. Here is an example:

There was a man in our town,
And he was wondrous wise;
He covered up his garbage pails
To keep away the flies.

10. Visit the pumping station of a large city and tell what you saw.

11. The Playground and Recreation Association of America, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City, awards bronze badges to boys and girls who prove their physical fitness by passing certain physical tests. Choose a member of the class to write to the Association to secure the details about the tests and then arrange for the members of your class to take them. The test given below is suitable for boys of thirteen or fourteen years of age; to secure a badge the contestant must qualify at one time in each of the four events.

a. Pull-up (Chinning), 6 times, or Rope Climb (using both hands and legs), 16 feet.

b. Standing Broad Jump, 6 feet 6 inches, or Running Broad Jump, 12 feet.

c. Sixty-Yard Dash, 8 seconds, or One-Hundred-Yard Dash, 13 2–5 seconds.

d. Baseball Throw (accuracy), 3 strikes out of 5 throws at 45 feet, or Baseball Throw (distance), 195 feet.

12. Choose a committee of five to measure the healthfulness of your schoolroom or school building, or both, using the Russell Sage Foundation standards given below. Put the following form on the blackboard and indicate by a cross the conditions of your school in each item; then make a profile of the healthfulness of your school by drawing lines from cross to cross, beginning at the top. Copy the profile in your notebook, and sum up in a paragraph below the profile the conclusions reached in class discussion. Send a copy to your principal and to your superintendent of schools.

STANDARDS USED IN JUDGING SCHOOL BUILDINGS

ITEMS	SUPERIOR	GOOD	FAIR	POOR	BAD
1. Square feet of floor space for each child	18	16	14	12	
2. Cubic feet of air space for each child	230	210	190	170	
3. Per cent window area is of floor area	25	20	15	10	
4. Square feet of playground area for each child	65	50	35	20	
5. Children per drinking fountain	40	70	100	130	

BOOKS TO READ

I. CLASSROOM READINGS

1. "Conquering Contagion," *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, 1–14.
2. "Teaching Sanitation to the World," *ibid.*, 213–231.
3. "William T. G. Morton, Master of Pain," *Heroes of Progress*, 39–46.
4. * "Clara Barton, Founder of the American Red Cross," *ibid.*, 140.
5. "Sanitation of the Panama Canal Zone," W. C. Gorgas, *In Our Times*, 145–151.
6. * "The Red Cross Spirit Speaks," John Finley, *ibid.*, 438–439.
7. * "Louis Pasteur," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 106–114.

8. "The City Water Supply," *ibid.*, 409–417.
9. "Howard Taylor Ricketts," *ibid.*, 481–489.
10. "William Crawford Gorgas, Conqueror of Yellow Fever," *Modern Great Americans*, 121–135.
11. "The Public Health Service," *The American Government*, 97–104.
12. "The American Red Cross," *ibid.*, 459–466.
13. "What to Do till the Doctor Comes," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, III, 1266–1270.
14. "The Fly, a Deadly Enemy to Man," *ibid.*, III, 1312–1313.
15. * "Workers who Fight our Battles against Disease," *ibid.*, IV, 1612–1615.
16. "Florence Nightingale," *ibid.*, VI, 2509.
17. "Exercises to Keep you Strong and Healthy," *ibid.*, VII, 2784–2785.
18. "Safeguarding Health," *Readings in Community Life*, Part II, section 1.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Essay

1. *Boy's Life of Theodore Roosevelt*, by Hermann Hagedorn. Harper.
2. * *Florence Nightingale, the Angel of the Crimea*, by Laura E. Richards. Appleton.
3. *Good Health*, by Frances G. Jewett. Ginn.
4. * *The Life of Clara E. Barton, Founder of the American Red Cross*, by William E. Barton. Houghton.
5. *Walter Reed and Yellow Fever*, by H. A. Kelly. McClure.
6. *The Life of Pasteur*, by René Vallery-Radot. Doubleday.
7. *The Martial Adventures of Henry and Me*, by William A. White. Macmillan.
8. * *Yourself and Your Body*, by Wilfred T. Grenfell. Scribner.
9. * *Dr. Grenfell's Parish*, by Norman Duncan. Revell.
10. *A Labrador Doctor*, by Wilfred T. Grenfell. Houghton.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *Eight Cousins*, by Louisa M. Alcott. Little.
2. * *A Daughter of the Rich*, by Mary E. Waller. Little.
3. *Rhymes of a Red Cross Man*, by Robert W. Service. Barse.
4. * *Dr. Luke of the Labrador*, by Norman Duncan. Revell.
5. *The Doctor*, by Ralph Connor. Revell.
6. *Tales of the Labrador*, by Wilfred T. Grenfell. Houghton.

CHAPTER IX

PROTECTING THE COMMUNITY FROM FIRE

FIRE SPEAKS

I am vassal of man and I do his will
In many a wondrous way,
If he chain me sure I am fain to endure
His mastery night and day;
But should I escape from my dungeon red
By charring the bolts and bars,
I chasten my master with death's disaster
And flaunt my head to the stars.

ANONYMOUS

SECTION I. THE COST OF FIRES

Our yearly fire loss. Look at a watch. While your eyes follow one turn of the second hand, property worth more than $1600 goes up in smoke. Once every minute, on the average, a fire breaks out somewhere in our country. In a single year our fire losses totaled five times the value of all the gold and silver mined in the United States during the same time. In addition, 12,000 persons were burned to death!

Fires cost each of us on the average more than $5 a year. If to the loss caused by flames we add the cost of insurance and fire departments, the total amounts to over $8 a person, or more than $40 for a family of five. And the bill falls on us all, even though we may have had no fire on our own premises.

Fire and insurance. How do we all pay the cost of fires? By an increase in prices caused by fire losses. Fire insurance, desirable as it is, does not prevent loss, but merely lessens the loss to the insured person; for insurance is only a sharing of risk. When insured property burns, the owner

bears part of the loss; the balance is borne by others who have paid for insurance but who have had no fire.

When destructive fires occur insurance rates are increased, and the greater the loss the higher the rate. This really means that fires force us to pay higher prices for what

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IN THE PATH OF THE FLAMES

This fire, which started in a factory and spread to other buildings, destroyed property worth almost a million dollars and made over a hundred people homeless. The firemen are trying to save a private dwelling threatened by the approaching flames. Fire losses in our country average over $1,500,000 a day.

we buy, since the cost of insurance must be added to the selling price of goods. When we remember that the wise farmer, transporter, manufacturer, and merchant each insures the goods we finally buy when the goods are in his possession, and that each man must add what he pays for insurance to the price for which he can afford to sell, we can readily see how insurance rates increase prices and how, therefore, they affect us all, for we are all buyers.

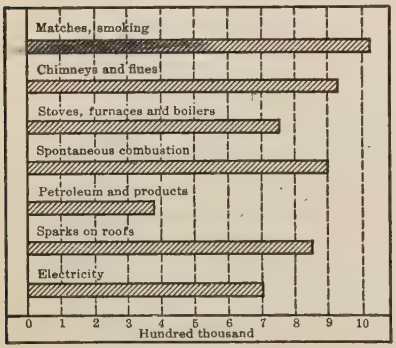
Needless fire costs. By far the greater part of our loss is needless, for proper care would prevent three out of every four fires. In Great Britain the fire loss is 72 cents a person; in France it is 49 cents; in Germany, 28 cents; in Australia, 25 cents; in Switzerland, 15 cents; and in Holland, 11 cents. In all Europe it averages only 33 cents. But in our own land, as shown above, it is more than $5 a person, a loss many times that in any other country in the world.

The chief cause of fires may be summed up in one word, "carelessness." For example, in a single year (1926), lighted matches, cigars, and cigarettes destroyed over $30,000,000 worth of property; defective chimneys and flues, the second largest cause, destroyed more than $23,000,000; improperly installed heating equipment, $21,000,000; spontaneous combustion, $15,000,000; gasoline and kerosene, $14,000,000; sparks on roofs, $14,000,000; electricity (not including lightning), $13,000,000. Proper care would have reduced the foregoing losses to a mere fraction of the sums named. Experts say that twelve of the twenty-one main causes of fire are "strictly preventable" and that the other nine are "partly preventable." An examination of a few of the chief causes will show the truth of their statement.

Matches. It is not strange, perhaps, that matches cause many unnecessary fires, for we use over seven hundred million matches a day in the United States. Many of such fires come from leaving matches within the reach of little children; others are caused by men and boys who thoughtlessly toss matches and lighted cigarettes or cigar ends in wastebaskets, on the floor, and into piles of rubbish. More than two hundred and fifty match fires, costing on the average $3000 each, occurred in Newark, New Jersey, in one year.

Spontaneous combustion. Greasy rags or oily cloths, when piled in heaps and left alone, become hot and finally burst into flames. This is called spontaneous combustion,

or burning from within. A beautiful church, it is said, was once destroyed in that very manner. The building had just been completed, and on the day before the first service was to take place some women of the congregation went over the woodwork with oily cloths. When they finished their work, they decided that the new dust cloths were too good to throw away; so they tossed them into a closet for use another time. But that night the new church burned to the ground, for the oily cloths had caught fire by spontaneous combustion.



CHIEF FIRE LOSSES IN THE UNITED STATES

Choose a committee to make a similar graph showing the fire losses in your community last year.

Electricity. Fires from electricity are often caused by the carelessness with which the workmen install wires in buildings, resulting in crossed wires, short circuits, and destruction. Fires are caused also by the thoughtlessness with which women use electric irons and cooking utensils. When the doorbell or the telephone rings, the housewife or maid sometimes answers the call without taking time to turn off the electric current; the iron becomes overheated, and a fire takes place. The beautiful home of John Wanamaker in Philadelphia was destroyed in this very way; in Boston a $350,000 house was burned to the ground by a fire traced to an electric plate-warmer. Similar carelessness causes thirty thousand needless fires every year.

Miscellaneous. Poorly made or thoughtlessly operated oil stoves also cause disastrous conflagrations. Carelessness in cleaning clothing with gasoline or benzine near an open flame sometimes results in dangerous explosions. Hundreds

of lives and millions of dollars' worth of property are lost from fires originating in overheated furnaces, unscreened open fireplaces, rubbish heaps, bonfires of leaves and paper, careless use of fireworks, and Christmas trees decorated with cotton and lighted by wax candles. Care and foresight would reduce our fire losses to one fifth their present extent.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Was your house ever on fire? If so, what was the loss? Tell the cause of the fire. Could it have been prevented? Explain.

2. Fire insurance is a tax we must all pay. Explain and illustrate the foregoing statement.

3. What is a fireproof building? Is your school building fireproof? Does it contain fire-fighting appliances? If so, tell how they work.

4. What is the chief cause of fire in your community? Give evidence for your answer.

Section II. Community Safeguards against Fires

Building regulations. The first important safeguard against fire is public control of building operations. Structures crowded close together may prove dangerous fire traps for those who live or work in them, and may cause fires to spread rapidly, thus endangering the entire community.

To prevent such perils, all towns and cities have regulations governing the erection of buildings and providing for frequent inspection to see that the ordinances are observed. The building regulations of most communities cover materials, foundation, thickness of walls, height of the structure, placement of chimneys and flues, strength of floors, plumbing, wiring, character of the roof, and fire escapes. The regulations also require that before a new structure can be erected a builder must submit plans to the department in charge of buildings and secure a permit

for the edifice. During construction, inspectors frequently examine the work to see that the plans are followed and that building regulations are fully obeyed.

Fire companies. The second community safeguard against fire is the fire department. The early Dutch settlers in New Amsterdam formed the first fire company in America. The organization, which was composed of volunteers, had a squad of night watchmen called by some the Night Prowlers and by others the Rattle Watch, from their habit of sounding an alarm with a rattle that made a terrific din. The entire equipment of the organization was two hundred and fifty buckets, a few large hooks for tearing off burning shingles, and several small ladders.

For more than two hundred years volunteers equipped with crude apparatus continued to serve as fire-fighters in all communities. Then professional firemen made their appearance. About 1850 Cincinnati tried out a rude steam engine which, to the amazement of the spectators, threw a stream of water one hundred and thirty feet. So impressed were the city officials that they immediately bought the machine and employed expert engineers to operate it. Thus Cincinnati won the honor of being the first city in the world to have a paid company equipped to fight fire with the aid of steam. Although the volunteer firemen bitterly opposed the improvement, other cities soon followed Cincinnati's example, purchased steam fire engines, and employed companies of trained men to guard the community from fires. Volunteers, however, still form the force in some places, especially in rural communities.

A modern fire department is organized very much like an army. At the head is a fire marshal, or chief, and below him, ranked in order, are deputies, or assistants, battalion chiefs, captains, lieutenants, and firemen. Authority over the department rests in the hands of a commissioner, who is usually a civilian, not a professional fireman. Military organization helps to secure the prompt action needed in fighting fires.

The chief work of firemen is to fight fires. When in service the men eat, sleep, and live at the fire station, arranging their clothes at night so as to be able to jump into them at once in case of an alarm. Firemen inspect factories, warehouses, and large buildings in order to see that fire regulations are obeyed and to become familiar with the edifices in which they may need to fight fires. In large cities they are assisted in saving property by the Insurance Patrol, a squad of trained men employed by insurance companies.

A HUNDRED-FOOT LEAP

Firemen are sometimes forced to jump for their lives from high buildings. To prepare for such emergencies they occasionally practice jumping into a life net. This fireman is jumping from a hundred-foot ladder while his comrades hold the net.

Positions in a modern fire company can be secured as a rule only after examinations designed to test thoroughly both the physical and the mental qualities of the applicant. After passing such examinations, a man is accepted on trial for a few weeks or months. He must now master the use of fire-fighting apparatus and must show his steadiness of nerve by climbing high buildings with scaling ladders, and by jumping into life nets from third-story windows. If he succeeds in such tests, he becomes a regular member of the force. Some cities maintain schools in which recruits are taught how to

fight fires. A fireman's promotion depends almost entirely on his ability and faithfulness.

Fire equipment. A third safeguard against fire is fire-fighting equipment. The earliest equipment consisted of buckets, in which water was carried to the fire and thrown on the flames. Hand syringes, or "hand squirts," holding about a gallon of water, were next employed. From such crude beginnings there slowly developed the complicated apparatus used by professional fire companies today.

ON THE LOOKOUT

In the national parks and forest reserves fire lookouts are stationed to keep a sharp watch for fires. At the first sign of smoke they telephone the location of the fire to the forest-rangers and the fight is soon on.

In addition to fire engines, a modern fire department has in its equipment, especially in our largest cities, hooks and ladders for scaling buildings; water towers for fighting fires high above the street; fire boats to reach fires in ships or on the water front; life guns, by which cords to be used for drawing up rope ladders can be shot over skyscrapers; pulmotors, for producing respiration in persons overcome by smoke, gas, or drowning; pikes, life nets, gas masks, axes, and roof-cutters, for entering burning buildings and rescuing persons endangered by fires.

Rural fire protection. Better fire protection is greatly needed in the country. California, for example, loses on the average from the destruction of standing grain and hay by fire about a quarter of a million dollars a year. Rural fires are caused chiefly by lightning, matches, defective chimneys, and sparks from harvesting machinery and

locomotives. Three out of every four rural fires could be prevented by spark-arresters, standard lightning rods, fire-extinguishers, — and carefulness.

Forest fires, too, are very destructive. In Minnesota during a single year they cost the lives of hundreds of people and destroyed over $35,000,000 worth of property; whole

FIGHTING A FOREST FIRE

Axes and long-handled shovels are the chief implements used in fighting a forest fire. With their help and by means of a "back fire" the forest-rangers make a break in the path of the oncoming flames and thus prevent further destruction.

counties of forests were burned to the ground, and town after town was wiped out of existence. Most forest fires are caused by lightning, by sparks from passing locomotives, and by the failure of campers, tourists, and hunters to put out their fires thoroughly when breaking camp. We need greater precautions in lumbering to prevent the piling up of brush heaps, more care in putting out sparks and embers by users of the woods, and the

screening of smokestacks on locomotives by railroad companies. Such efforts, if combined with the use of the airplane and radio, and a watchful state police or forest-ranger service, would reduce the loss from forest fires to one tenth its present size.

State fire protection. Most states now have fire marshals to investigate the causes of fires, to inspect city fire departments, and to prevent conditions likely to cause fire. Wisconsin has two fire-fighting agencies: (1) a marshal, who, with his assistants, investigates suspicious conflagrations and helps to prosecute persons accused of setting property on fire; (2) the fire-prevention department of the Industrial Commission, which studies methods of preventing fires, helps to enforce fire regulations throughout the state, inspects city fire departments, and sends out pamphlets telling people how to avoid fire waste.

Beyond establishing safeguards in the national forests and in Federal buildings, ships, and army camps, the national government takes little part in the war on fire.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Report all you can find about the history of your fire department. If you live in a rural community, describe your means of fire protection and tell how they developed. Suggest ways of improvement. Is your fire department under civilian control? Explain.

2. Has your city a high-pressure water system? If so, in what sections? Inquire at a local fire station.

3. Who makes the fire regulations in your community? Mention some of the most important rules. Who sees that they are obeyed?

4. How can a man become a fireman in your community? What training must he undergo? What pay will he receive?

5. What means of protection against forest fires has your state?

Section III. Fighting Fires

Early fire-fighting. Centuries ago fires were often thought to be the work of evil spirits. When a building burst into flames, images and relics were sometimes brought out of the churches and carried up and down the streets to frighten away the demons of the air and thus stop the blaze. But reliance was also placed on leather buckets and hand syringes.

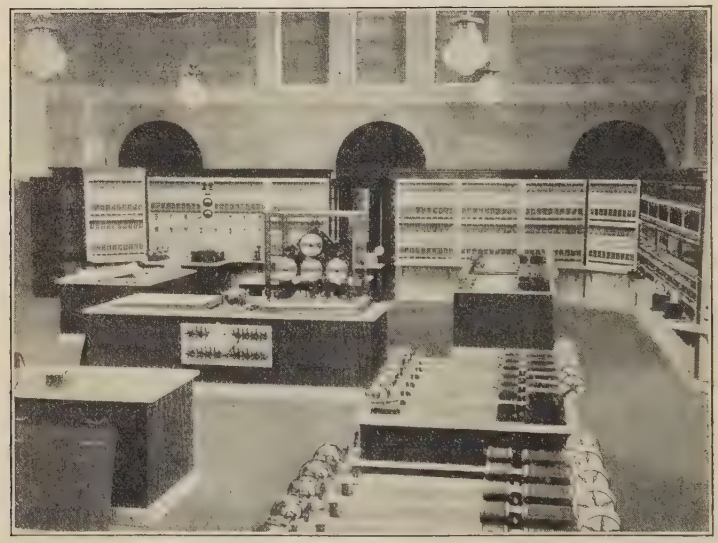
Colonial settlements protected themselves from fire as best they could. Salem, Massachusetts, as early as 1644, ordered every householder under penalty of fine to have a ladder and two buckets for use in time of fire. Gradually, as we have seen, volunteer fire companies were formed, at first limiting their services to their own members but later giving assistance to all in need. George Washington, it is interesting to notice, belonged to a volunteer fire company in Alexandria, Virginia, and during the Revolution showed his interest in fire-fighting by presenting an up-to-date hand pump to a Philadelphia fire company.

Fire-fighting in the old days was usually directed by an officer called a fire warden. When the cry "Fire! Fire!" rang out, the men and boys in the community dropped their tasks, seized their buckets, and ran to the scene. Forming two lines to the nearest well or stream, the men passed the full buckets up one line until the water could be thrown on the flames, and the boys returned the empty buckets down the other line to the source of the water supply. Anyone trying to pass through the lines was usually deluged by a bucket of water. When the fire was out, each man picked up his buckets, carried them home, and hung them up by the door, ready for the next alarm.

Modern fire-fighting. As cities grew, the simple methods and equipment of early fire companies proved inadequate and, as we have seen, fire engines, scaling ladders, and

water towers took the place of leather buckets and hand pumps. Electric signal systems succeeded the shouts of the boys as means of spreading an alarm, and trained men, ready for any crisis, displaced the volunteer fire companies.

Firemen of today must face many hazards. In an underground fire they are in danger of suffocation from the thick,



A MODERN FIRE-ALARM-SIGNAL STATION

When an alarm of fire is sent in from any part of Boston a light flashes on these signal boards, the signal is instantly despatched to the entire department, and the fire apparatus in the stations nearest the fire are at once on their way.

black smoke that fills the dark basement. When attacking flames within a building, they are in peril from poisonous fumes, explosions, and deadly back drafts. Even when fighting a fire from the street, they are menaced by broken glass, melted lead, and falling walls. But such dangers are looked upon by most firemen as mere parts of the day's work, for no men are more modest or courageous than those who risk their lives in the war on fire.

Every community has its fire heroes. Notable among those of the Chicago Fire Department are Dillon, Sheehan, and Chief Seyferlich.

Seyferlich's closest call came when he was battalion chief. A nasty fire had been discovered in the basement of a wholesale meat market. Carrying into practice the departmental theory of getting

DANGEROUS WORK

Twenty firemen were badly hurt while rescuing nine of their comrades who had been overcome by the smoke and fumes in a subcellar fire in this building.

at the heart of the fire, he was crawling along the basement floor in the dark when, suddenly, the hot air changed in odor. A wave of gas, at once sickeningly sweet and searing, blinded his eyes and burned his nose and throat. The ammonia tanks had exploded!

Seyferlich swung about, blindly trying to fight his way out, then fell to the floor unconscious, the flames not twenty feet away. Hours later, it seemed, the last man of his company, cutting across the rear of the room to escape, felt his boot strike a metal object. He stooped, found Seyferlich's hat, then Seyferlich himself face down in the water. He dragged the chief into the open air, and for

ten and a half hours Seyferlich lay unconscious. But he was on duty the following day.

On another occasion the deadly ammonia fumes, during a cold-storage warehouse fire, sent more than a score of firemen down and out, among them Seyferlich. The six-story warehouse, crammed with butter, pork, and Thanksgiving poultry, presented one of the most difficult and stubborn fires in the records of the department. Three hundred thousand pounds of melting butter ran knee-deep on the fifth floor, feeding the flames to fierce intensity and ably seconded by tons of hams, lard, and bacon. On every floor were clusters of firemen, and a squad of twenty-odd on the roof.

Suddenly, there came a click, a hiss, and in a moment almost, the men on the roof were writhing in agony, clawing at their throats, screaming and praying. Ammonia! Two of the men, Sheehan and Dillon, managed to scramble to their feet and clear their lungs and eyes enough to permit them to plunge back into the fumes. In one corner was a hole through which a ladder projected. Twenty-two times the two men fought their way into the gas blanket to bring out an unconscious companion and slide him down the ladder to safety.

Meanwhile Seyferlich on the fifth floor was having his troubles. Sick from ammonia, he staggered behind his men into the air, he and his whole company knocked out. Most of the men were quickly on their way to the hospital. Lying on the ground waiting his turn, Seyferlich heard someone say that his lieutenant, crazed by the fumes, had reeled back into the blazing building. Already Seyferlich had carried out four unconscious men, but, staggering to his feet, he turned back to the dark, smoke-filled rooms. There he groped about the floor, himself on the verge of collapse. In one corner he finally stumbled across his man, reeled to his feet, and tried to lift the burden. Too weak for that, he seized the lieutenant by the coat and collar and worked his way, foot by foot, to the elevator shaft where both men were later found and carried out. "Honorable mention?" Seyferlich was asked. "No!" he exclaimed, "it's all in the day's work."[1]

[1] *Everybody's Magazine* (February, 1926).

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Tell about a brave deed of a member of the fire department in your community or in some other community in which you have lived or visited. Inquire of relatives, friends, or firemen.

2. Ask a fireman to explain the back draft. Name dangers, not mentioned in the section, faced by firemen.

3. How long does it take you to dress in the morning? Find out at the fire station how long a fireman takes to get into his clothes when there is an alarm.

4. Describe the fire-alarm system of your town or city. Tell how to send in an alarm in case of fire.

5. Why should a fire company always have the right of way in a street or boulevard?

Section IV. Your Part in Fire Protection

Everyone a fire-fighter. We can all take part in the war on fire. We can avoid actions that cause fire, help to remove conditions that lead to fire, and can influence others to join in the campaign to prevent fire. And we can all observe the following fire rules:

1. *Be careful with matches.* Use the strike-on-the-box brand. Never throw matches away when they are burning or glowing. Do not let little children play with matches. Keep on the safe side.

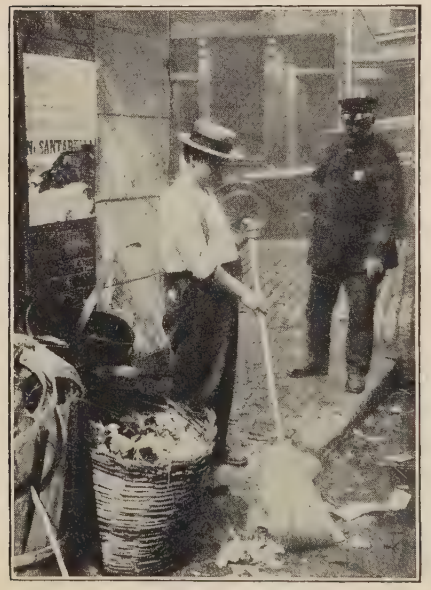
2. *Be careful with open fires.* Keep a screen before the fireplace. Be sure that the fire is out and that the ashes are cold before leaving an outdoor fire. Never build a fire where the flames may spread to dry grass, leaves, or brush. Do not start a bonfire on a windy day.

3. *Be careful with rubbish.* Tie up old newspapers and magazines and sell them to the junk-dealer. Keep your attic, basement, garage, barn, and yard free from boxes, rags, and trash. Do not allow rubbish to collect.

4. *Be careful with kerosene.* Fill lamps and oil-stoves by

daylight. Never start a fire with kerosene. Keep the oil can outside the house and away from a barn or a garage.

5. *Be careful with gasoline.* Keep it in tightly fastened cans. Never fill an automobile tank when the engine is running or near someone who is smoking. Do all cleaning with gasoline or benzine out of doors and in the day time. Take no chances with gasoline; it is as dangerous as dynamite.



A FIRE HAZARD

Rubbish and litter cause fire losses amounting to almost two million dollars every year. A lighted match or a cigarette-end tossed into this barrel by a passer-by may start a blaze that will destroy the adjoining building. In many communities a citizen who allows litter to accumulate on or around his premises is punished by fine or imprisonment, or both.

What to do in case of fire. Most fires are small at first and can easily be put out with a bucket of water or with a hand extinguisher, if attacked in time. If the fire has gained headway, call the fire department. Use the alarm box if one is near your home or call the station by telephone; tell where the fire is, — and don't get excited.

As guides to conduct in times of emergency, there are no better safety rules than the following, slightly changed, from the *Fire Prevention Manual* of the United States Bureau of Education:

1. Make all your plans in advance.

2. Never go to bed without knowing the quickest, safest way to leave the house. When in a hotel, be sure to locate the stairs and the fire escape before retiring.

3. Keep the halls, stairs, doors, and fire escapes free from obstructions.

4. Know where to find the nearest fire-alarm box and study the directions in advance.

5. If the door to your room is closed in time of fire, put your foot behind it and open it cautiously; slam it shut if the fire threatens to rush in.

6. If there is dense smoke but no flame in the hallway, tie a wet cloth around your mouth and nose and crawl out on your hands and knees, keeping your head close to the floor.

7. Close all doors you pass, in order to keep the fire from spreading.

8. Do not jump from a window except as a last resort. It is better to tear a sheet into strips, tie the strips together into a rope, fasten one end of the rope securely, and slide to the ground.

9. Always save life before property. In saving property, take out the most valuable articles first.

10. Always keep your head.

Summary. The buildings destroyed by fire in a single year in our country would line both sides of a street extending from New York to Chicago. This enormous loss, most of which could be prevented, must be paid for by all of us in higher prices for what we buy. By means of building regulations, expert fire companies, and scientific fire equipment, the community endeavors to guard itself from fire. The growth of cities and the invention of the steam fire engine displaced the crude apparatus and the untrained volunteers of early days and led to the development of the professional fire departments of the present. A modern fire force, like an army, is organized with a chief at its head, but is usually under civilian control. In rural communities and in forests better fire protection is greatly needed. If proper safeguards were established, if suitable laws for the construction of buildings and the punishment of carelessness were passed and enforced, and if we all were more careful with matches, kerosene, gasoline, rubbish, electricity, and open fires, our fire losses would largely disappear.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Which of the five rules on pages 203 and 204 are you most likely to forget? Tell about a fire that was caused by the violation of one of these rules.

2. Tell what you should do if you awoke some night and found your house on fire. What should you do if you were in church or a motion-picture theater and the building caught fire? What should you do if your clothing caught fire? How should you act in the school assembly room in case of fire?

3. How should hunters, campers, and tourists build and leave fires? Tell about forest-preservation signs you have seen.

4. A person who breaks his neighbor's window must pay for it; should one whose carelessness causes his neighbor's house to burn to the ground be required to pay for the damage? Give reasons.

5. What should you do if a fire broke out in the house of your next-door neighbor? Do you know the exact location of the fire alarm nearest your home and how to turn in an alarm? Explain.

6. Explain the facts given below. If you need help, ask your father, an older brother or sister, or a neighbor.

a. The owner of a warehouse replaced two ordinary doors, closing the openings with two fire doors. The cost was $268; the annual saving in insurance was $1200.

b. A small frame addition to the rear of a brick building was removed by the owner at a cost of $96; the saving in insurance was $280 a year.

THINGS TO DO

1. On a map of your community or neighborhood, if you live in a large city, locate with small red circles all fire stations. Put two circles around the stations nearest your home, your school, and your church. Use an outline map if possible. Indicate with a red cross (×) each fire-alarm box in the vicinity.

2. Ask your father whether your home or household goods are protected by fire insurance. Ask also whether there is any way by which he can reduce the rate, such as by erecting lightning rods, or by purchasing fire-extinguishers.

3. Suggest or make fire slogans and posters for the school bulletin board.

4. Invite your fire chief to talk to the school assembly on one of the following topics: (1) how to prevent fires; (2) what to do in time of fire; (3) bad fires in our community.

5. Find what the fire-insurance rates in your community are, (1) in the business section, (2) in the residential section. Find whether the rates are higher or lower than in other communities of the same size. Investigate the main reasons for differences that exist. Secure information from someone in the fire-insurance business.

6. When you have a fire drill in your school, record in your notebook (1) the minutes required to empty the building and (2) the minutes required to return to your room and begin work. Suggest ways of reducing the time. About a month later, when the drill is repeated, compare the time with that required during the first drill.

7. From the last report of your fire marshal find (1) the number of fires in your community the past year, (2) the total fire loss, (3) the average annual fire loss the last five years, (4) the chief causes of local fires, and (5) the number of fires that were preventable. Put your answer in the form of a table or graph.

8. Estimate the average cost of fire protection to each person in your community. To solve the problem, find (1) the rate of insurance, (2) the total amount of property insured, and (3) the cost of your fire department. Then add the amount paid for insurance (how can you find it?) to the cost of the fire department and divide the sum by the population of your community. Tell whether the quotient measures the total cost of fire protection to each person. (See pages 189–190.)

9. Plan a program for observing fire-prevention week.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "Protecting the Community from Fire," *Readi*
Part II, section 2.
2. * "The Fireman," *Careers of Danger and Darin*
3. "The 'Red-Ink Squad,'" H. J. O'Higgins, *T*
327–338.

4. * "Through Flame and Smoke with the Fire Fighters," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, III, 1257–1260.
5. "How we can Aid in Fire Prevention," *ibid.*, 1260–1262.

II. Home Readings

1. *The Boys' Book of Firemen*, by Irving Crump. Dodd.
2. * *Fighting a Fire*, by Charles T. Hill. Century.
3. *The Fireman*, by Tudor Jenks. McClurg.
4. *Fires and Fire-Fighters*, by John Kenlon. Doran.
5. *Fire Fighters and their Pets*, by Alfred M. Downes. Harper.
6. *Safeguarding the Home against Fire*, by the National Board of Fire-Underwriters. United States Bureau of Education.
7. *Cap Fallon, Fire-Fighter*, by John A. Moroso. Appleton.
8. * *The Smoke Eaters*, by Harvey J. O'Higgins. Century.
9. *Firebrands*, by Frank E. Martin and George M. Davis. Little.
10. *Safety First for School and Home*, by Harriet E. Beard. Macmillan.
11. *The Flame Fiend*, by Hallie L. Jameson. Allyn.
12. *The Avoidance of Fires*, by Arland D. Weeks. Heath.

CHAPTER X

MAINTAINING LAW AND ORDER

The safety of the public is the supreme law. — JUSTINIAN

SECTION I. GUARDIANS OF PUBLIC SAFETY

Rules and laws. Every game, from marbles to baseball, has its rules or laws which tell how the game is to be played. The rules are intended to give everyone an equal chance. The player who will not obey the rules spoils the fun, is looked upon as unfair, sometimes is penalized, and occasionally is put out of the game.

In the family, school, church, community, and nation there are also rules or laws. Like the rules in a game, the laws are intended to give all citizens equal rights and opportunities. The individual who breaks the laws refuses to respect the rights of others. He, too, is unfair, and to safeguard the community it may be necessary to put such a person in prison, to deprive him of privileges, or to restrain him in some other way.

The police exist to establish fair play in the community. Their work is to see that the rules are obeyed. Their duty is to enforce laws, prevent crime, arrest lawbreakers, and guard the public safety.

Early police. In the old days every man served as a policeman. When the men and boys heard the cry "Thief! thief!" they instantly dropped their work or play, joined in the shout, and, accompanied by the dogs in the vicinity, took after the fugitive. Like hounds after a fox, the pursuers kept up the chase until the runaway was captured or until he escaped. According to this old custom, known as

"the hue and cry," all the men of the neighborhood had to take part in protecting the community.

In those far-off times the towns and cities were surrounded by thick walls of brick or stone, on the top of which armed men called warders kept watch both night and day. Upon the approach of an enemy the warders rang the alarm bell to call the citizens to arms. In addition to the defense afforded by walls and warders against foes from without, most towns were also protected by watchmen and constables against enemies from within. Armed with heavy cudgels or spears, the constables walked the streets, attempting to protect the inhabitants from the thieves and thugs who lurked in the dark alleys. With lantern and pike they made their rounds at night, bawling out, "Past ten o'clock and all's well!" or "Four o'clock and a cloudy morning!" They served not only as guardians of the community, but also as news-bringers and weather-reporters.

Early warders and watchmen were picturesque, but they did not protect the citizens very well, and as cities grew in size it became more and more difficult to keep order and prevent crime. Neither life nor property was safe; riots were frequent; men were robbed in broad daylight; murders were common incidents. One man out of every twenty, it is said, was a lawbreaker.

Modern police. Such conditions caused Sir Robert Peel, an English statesman, to take the lead in securing a law to establish an organized police force in London (1829). At first the new officers with their clubs and uniforms were very unpopular. The English for centuries had looked upon a standing army as a menace to freedom, and the presence among them of trained policemen seemed equally dangerous. For a few years after Peel's law went into effect, therefore, frequent clashes occurred between the populace and the "Bobbies," or "Peelers," as the police were nicknamed after their founder. But the services of the new force gradually won them popular favor, and in time they became

models to be copied the world over. In our own country New York City led the way by replacing her watchmen in 1844 with trained police officers. Other American cities, one by one, followed her example, and by the end of the Civil War all depended upon organized police departments to maintain law and order.

Police positions. Positions on a police force can be had, as a rule, only by passing mental and physical tests. Applicants are then examined on their knowledge of the city and its government, on common branches such as reading and arithmetic, and on the duties of the police. They are also tested on strength, endurance, hearing, sight, and keenness of observation. Before beginning work, a successful candidate receives thorough training for his duties as a police officer.

THE MOUNTED POLICE

Twice in recent years the Chicago chief of police has ordered the mounted police replaced by a motor-cycle squad, but on both occasions such a storm of protest came from the community that the chief was forced to withdraw his order. In Chicago, therefore, as in most large cities, mounted policemen still add a touch of romance to streets jammed with trucks, busses, and trolley cars.

Years ago all that was required of a policeman was strength and courage to handle a curbstone drunkard or a burly thug. But the present-day criminal is clever and resourceful, and the officer who protects the modern community, therefore, must possess not only superior physique but keen wits as well. In spite of all that we require of our

police officers we pay them a comparatively low salary, most police positions drawing from $1500 to $2500 a year. Since other occupations offer men of such caliber much more, it is becoming increasingly difficult to fill the ranks of the police with the high type of men we need.

LOOKING AFTER LOST CHILDREN

Being lost in a vast city loses some of its terrors when this friend in the blue uniform comes to the rescue. While the little boy's parents are being sought, the officer will take him to the station where other policemen will show him every kindness.

Although politics no longer plays much part in securing a man a position, it sometimes prevents his promotion and leads occasionally to his being placed on a disagreeable beat or even to a reduction in rank. Reforms in such respects are greatly needed.

Policewomen. All large cities now have women on the police force. New York, for example, has policewomen as regular members of the force and, in addition, has a volunteer organization of women numbering more than five thousand. Policewomen investigate crimes affecting women and girls, look after neglected children, act as peacemakers in family quarrels, help to secure work for women, and occasionally serve as traffic officers. At police headquarters there is always a matron to take charge of women and children who are brought to the station. In protecting women and girls in railway stations, public parks, and on the streets, policewomen give valuable service.

Organization of police. The police are organized like an army. At the top is a chief of police, and below him, ranked

in order, are deputies, inspectors, captains, lieutenants, sergeants, and patrolmen. In most cities the police are organized in three main divisions. The patrol division, usually the largest group, has for its chief work the protection of the community from crime and disorder. The traffic division is occupied in regulating traffic in the downtown district. The detective division, the smallest of the groups, is engaged in ferreting out crime and capturing fugitives from justice.

For police purposes a city is divided into precincts in each of which are a number of patrolmen. Each man covers his own route, or beat, and is responsible for good order within his territory. When on duty he is required to report by telephone at frequent intervals to the precinct station. The size of beats varies greatly in different parts of a city; residential precincts are usually large, business precincts small. In charge of each precinct is a captain whose duty is to supervise the work of the police under his authority and to keep a record of all police activities and of all crimes occurring in his precinct.

Control. Although the chief of police has authority over the entire department, he in turn is responsible to a commissioner or to a board of commissioners. Occasionally the commissioner is a trained policeman, but as a rule he is a civilian. Theodore Roosevelt, for example, was not a police officer, but as commissioner he had authority over the ten thousand policemen in New York City. The power of local police authorities is determined by state law.

Civilian control tends to prevent the harsh and rigid methods sometimes used in the army, safeguards the rights of private citizens, and maintains the supremacy of the civil over the military power. In most parts of the country the police are under the city government, but in some sections they are under the state government or under both the state and city governments.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name three ways in which old-time warders and constables differ from the police of today.

2. Tell why policemen should wear uniforms. Mention disadvantages in the wearing of the uniform. Do detectives wear uniforms?

3. Tell how positions can be secured on the police force of your community. How can policemen be removed from their positions? What training must applicants undergo? What are policemen paid in your community? Are there any policewomen in your community? If so, tell what they do. How are women selected for the force?

4. What is civilian control? Why should the police be controlled by civilians? Are the army and navy under civilian control? Explain.

5. Are the police in your community controlled by the local government or the state government? Name the chief advantages of local control; of state control.

6. *Reports for volunteers:* The police of Great Britain, France, Canada, or Japan (each volunteer take one country).

Section II. What the Police Do

Arrest of lawbreakers. One duty of the police is to arrest lawbreakers. After an officer makes an arrest he usually telephones for the patrol wagon and then goes with the prisoner to the police station, where the officer in charge investigates the accusation. If the charge is serious, such as murder or burglary, the prisoner is searched and locked in a cell. If he is accused of some slight offense, such as fighting, he may be released on bail; that is, either he or his friends obligate themselves to forfeit a certain sum of money if he does not appear in court at the time set for trial.

The police of most cities make few arrests, for it has been found by experience that the taking of all offenders to the

station increases rather than lessens crime; moreover, two thirds of those formerly arrested were dismissed by the judges. Instead of arresting first offenders for petty offenses, the police now usually warn them and tell them the law; the result is less trouble, less suffering, and less crime.

Enforcement of ordinances. We should not think of policemen, then, merely as men with clubs whose duty is to

CAPTURING BANDITS

Two policemen against a carload of bandits is not an unusual line-up, but this trained dog counts for another policeman because he can handle one man by himself.

arrest criminals, although this is an important part of their work. The police must also enforce city ordinances. They must see that peddlers do not block the sidewalks with their wares, that teamsters do not leave wagons in the streets, that householders remove snow and ice from sidewalks, that vehicles do not use streets closed for play or building operations, that boys do not play truant, and that shopkeepers do not litter the streets or alleys with boxes and rubbish.

Guarding public safety. But the police do much more than arrest criminals and enforce law. They stop runaway horses, prevent reckless speeding, take care of lost children, and give information to strangers. They notify the station promptly about gas leaks, broken street lights, and stolen automobiles. They assist at fires and give first aid in case of accidents. They are on hand in every large crowd to prevent disorder and riots. They guard public safety. In busy down-town districts they direct traffic so as to keep automobiles, trucks, and street cars moving in an orderly manner and as rapidly as safety permits.

HELPING THE INJURED

A policeman can always be found in any crowd which gathers after an accident. He is there to give help, assisting the injured, taking names, finding out who is to blame, and seeing that the street is cleared of wreckage.

Policemen often risk their lives for others. In New York City not long ago a patrolman at great hazard saved a man who had fallen at midnight into the ice-filled East River. Another officer endangered his life in catching a mad dog which had already bitten five persons. Two other bluecoats almost perished while rescuing a number of persons from a burning five-story tenement. Every city in the United States has instances of similar heroism in its police records.

Police signal systems. Signal systems in modern cities enable the police to act rapidly in time of need. In addition to telephones, many departments now use bomb-hurling devices for daylight alarms, searchlights for night alarms,

and the radio for broadcasting information about riots, fires, crimes, and escaped prisoners. For example, a flashlight system in New York, which may be operated from the station house or by a citizen on the street, sends a light that can be seen at night almost half a mile. When it attracts the attention of the patrolman on duty, he goes to the signal post and finds out what is wanted. The system enables an officer to summon to his aid every policeman in his precinct or in the city.

One night a few years ago the lieutenant in charge of a New York police station was notified that the driver of a large limousine had run over and killed a man and, without stopping, had kept on his way at high speed. Immediately the message was sent to the men on duty. Ten minutes later the automobile, still at top speed, tore past a policeman without obeying his warning to stop. Again the station was notified and again the message was passed out to the men on duty. The patrolman in whose direction the car was coming immediately stopped two passing automobiles and placed them head to head so as to bar the way. Scarcely was this done when the limousine thundered in sight. In attempting to pass between the two cars the driver was forced to slow up. Immediately the patrolman leaped on the running board, put a revolver at the head of the driver, brought the car to a dead stop, and placed the six occupants under arrest. The entire episode, from the time of the accident to the capture of the speeders, occupied barely a quarter of an hour.

Work of detectives. No work of a police department is more interesting than that of the detectives, or plain-clothes men. Dressed like ordinary citizens, they can prevent crimes and capture offenders in ways which are impossible to men in uniform. Owing to their long study of the methods and hiding places of criminals, detectives are usually able in the long run to outwit the wiliest, most dangerous lawbreaker.

Detectives are aided in their work by detailed descriptions kept by police departments of every person with a "police record." The photograph of each criminal is taken from different angles, and his height, weight, length of arms, shape of head, size of ears, form of nose, color of eyes and hair are also recorded. Last of all, his fingerprints are taken. Since the small lines and circles on the ends of the fingers are alike in no two of us and are difficult to destroy, a fingerprint is an unfailing method of identification, and a mark on a pane of glass or a window sill has led more than once to the capture of a lawbreaker. In trailing fugitives trained dogs at times are also of service.

TAKING FINGERPRINTS

Fingerprints are a positive means of identification, as the finger tips of no two persons are alike; even one man's thumbs will differ. If this man's fingerprints are taken fifty years from now, they will be unchanged.

Police protection in the country. Serious need exists today for improved police service in rural communities. The coming of the automobile and improved highways make it easy for criminals to rob country banks, stores, and homes. Tramps also are often a terror to the countryside.

The murder of a young foreman, Sam Howell by name, in a rural district in New York a few years ago showed in a tragic way the need of better protection in the country.

Ambushed, early one Saturday morning, by four men who at the point of revolvers demanded the week's payroll, Howell drove his motor cycle straight through the gang. At once they fired, but in spite of seven wounds Howell guided his machine a half mile farther to the construction camp. Here he retained consciousness long enough to turn over the payroll and to name two of his assailants. Then

ON DUTY

Whenever the state police go out after a criminal, sooner or later they bring him in. Fearless, experienced, and untiring, they provide protection for the countryside by preventing forest fires, by helping local authorities maintain order, and by capturing outlaws.

he fainted. Three days later he died. Although all four of the murderers remained in the vicinity for hours, no one attempted to arrest them. Howell's fellow workmen were afraid to try to capture them, and the local constable and the sheriff seemed equally timid.

For some time New York had considered the establishment of a state police; the Howell tragedy brought the force into existence. The State Troopers, as they are called, are a body of picked men, most of whom have served with excellent records in the army. They are carefully selected

for the work; out of 2700 applicants for positions in one state only 140 were able to meet the mental, physical, and moral standards for the force.

Fifteen states now have state police. The first and probably the most notable organization is that of Pennsylvania. Here, as in most states, the force is organized like an army. It consists of five troops and a training school. The troops operate from five centers in the state and also have numerous substations where from three to six men are constantly on duty. This arrangement enables the troopers to reach any point in the state within an hour; since the stations are connected by telephone and radio, the troopers can also concentrate at any place within a short time in case of emergency.

Members of the force patrol the state on foot, horseback, motor cycle, and in light automobiles. They investigate crimes, enforce game and fish laws, aid in maintaining quarantine regulations in cases of contagious diseases, assist in the inspection of infected cattle, help to put out and prevent forest fires, arrest criminals, enforce traffic laws, recover stolen property, examine applicants for drivers' licenses, and preserve order in time of riot. Unfortunately there are evidences that at times both the troopers and the city police abuse their power, especially in connection with strikes.

Police protection in the nation. Like the state governments, the national government also exercises police authority. If state officials are not able to handle riots or insurrections, the governor or state legislature may secure assistance from the president of the United States. Indeed, if order is not maintained by state officials, the president may act even if he receives no appeal for aid, especially if the disturbance prevents the enforcement of national laws. Such was the case in Illinois in 1894 when President Cleveland sent troops to Chicago to prevent the stopping of the mails by strikers. A century earlier President Washington,

in spite of the protest of the governor of Pennsylvania, sent fifteen thousand militia to the western part of the state to put down the Whisky Insurrection.

The national government also exercises police power in guarding public health and morals. It helps the state governments to protect the people from impure foods and drugs. Under the eighteenth amendment to the Constitution it assists in enforcing prohibition throughout the nation. It also establishes safeguards against piracy, counterfeiting, and the invasion of national territory. To carry out its great powers, the national government depends largely on Federal marshals, but in time of crisis it may use the militia or the regular army and navy.

Ewing Galloway

A HIGHWAY TELEPHONE

Anyone in trouble on a highway in Pennsylvania finds the emergency telephone a very present help. Instead of walking miles to a town, he can use the telephone to summon relief.

Police power. Police power includes much more than the protection of life and property from criminals, and its exercise is not limited to the police force. Police power includes everything necessary to guard health and morals from any danger whatever. It is exercised by all officers who protect the public. By virtue of police power the government enforces quarantine regulations, requires railroad companies to fence in tracks and place watchmen at dangerous crossings, limits the speed of automobiles and motor cycles, and passes liquor and gambling laws. Police power is exercised by policemen and also by firemen, building inspectors, and public health officers. Although police power belongs to the state and the nation, it is exercised mainly by the local governments acting for the state and within limits fixed by state law.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Find examples, in Chapter IX, of the exercise of police power.

2. Tell what the police in your community do to safeguard health. What is the most important service of the police to your community? Which of their activities touches the greatest number of people directly? indirectly? Explain.

3. Describe the most heroic act of any policeman, constable, or sheriff in your community during the last ten years (consult your father, an older acquaintance, or someone on the staff of a local newspaper).

4. The *Chicago Daily Tribune* for several years has given $100 each month to reward the deputy sheriff or policeman who performed the most praiseworthy act the preceding month. Is such a reward desirable? If so, would it be better if the reward were offered by the government? Give reasons.

5. Do citizens of today have any obligations like those which rested on people in the Middle Ages when the "hue and cry" was raised? Does the sheriff of your county have any authority over bystanders when he needs help in making an arrest or stopping a riot? Can the state or national government compel citizens to serve in the militia or army against their will? What bearing have your answers to the second and third questions in this group on the first question?

6. Does your state have a state police force? If not, what protection is provided for people who live in rural communities?

SECTION III. HOW TO HELP THE POLICE

Assisting the police. At first thought it may seem that there is no way by which junior citizens can aid the police. Most boys and girls cannot arrest criminals, enforce law, or capture fugitives from justice. However, there are other ways, less dramatic but very important, by which we can all help to make the community safe and attractive.

1. *Obey the laws.* The work of the police would be much easier if everyone would observe the laws. You can lighten

their tasks by crossing the street at right angles at the corner, by playing where you are in no danger from trucks and automobiles, by keeping your backyard and alley free from rubbish, by removing ice and snow from your sidewalks, and by avoiding conduct that will annoy or injure other people in the neighborhood or community. Obey the laws.

A YOUTHFUL SAFETY PATROL

These boy patrols keep children from crossing the street when traffic is dangerous. They serve near the school building during the hours when children are going to and from school.

2. *Report community dangers and wastes.* Tell the policeman in your neighborhood about leaking water plugs and gas mains. Inform him about broken lights or dangerous holes and obstructions in streets and alleys. Report fire hazards and serious accidents. Help to protect public property.

3. *Be courteous and friendly.* Remember that policemen are the guardians of the community. They are your friends, not your enemies. Treat them with respect; answer their questions cheerfully; follow their directions promptly. Coöperate.

Summary. The work of the police is to protect the public from crime, to enforce the law, and to guard the common safety. Looked upon at first with fear and suspicion, they are now regarded by all good citizens as friends and helpers. Like an army, the police are organized with a chief at the top, control of the force usually resting with civilians, who pass on police regulations and decide general police policy. Adequate protection, such as is furnished in New York by the State Troopers, is greatly needed in all rural communities. Police power is exercised for the most part by local agencies, but both the state and the national governments stand ready to give assistance whenever an emergency arises. By obedience to law, by coöperation in reporting dangers, and by courtesy and friendliness, we can all help the police to maintain peace and order in the neighborhood and the community in which we live.

THE FRIENDLY COP

This policeman is regarded as a big brother by the boys in the North End of Boston. He has helped them to organize baseball teams, track meets, and football contests. In this group of boys, which includes several bootblacks, there may be one of Boston's future councilors.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Tell why games have rules. Who may change the rules? Why is it necessary to have an umpire or referee in games? What is meant by "playing fair"? If everyone played fair, would a referee be necessary? Did you ever play in a game without an umpire or a referee? Tell what happened.

2. Name three activities besides games that have rules. How can the rules be changed? Are "umpires" or "referees" necessary in the activities you have named? Explain. What does it mean to play fair in school work? in business? in community life?

3. Give examples not mentioned in this section, showing how pupils in your school can help the police.

4. What is meant by "police power"? List as many examples of police power as you have seen in your community. What illustrations of police power can you find in Chapters VI and VIII?

5. In which instances in your answer to the foregoing question was police power exercised by local officials? state officials? national officials? Put an *L* after instances of the first sort, an *S* after those of the second, and an *N* after those of the third. What conclusions about the exercise of police power should you draw from the results?

6. Do policemen in your community have a retirement or pension allowance? If so, tell its main provisions.

7. If you should need the assistance of a policeman, how should you obtain it?

8. *Reports for volunteers:*

a. Law and order in California in 1849 (McMaster, *History of the People of the United States,* VII, 609–614; Costigan, "American Mining Law," *Lessons in Community and National Life,* series A, 145–152).

b. The Whisky Rebellion (consult any good American history).

THINGS TO DO

1. Choose a committee to find out at the police station (1) how the pupils in your school can assist the police, and (2) how the boys can organize a junior police squad to help regulate traffic or school children near the school building.

2. On the map which you made in working out the first exercise in "Things to Do" on page 206, indicate by blue circles all police stations in your neighborhood or community.

3. From information you can find in the last report of your police department write a summary of the work of the police

during the past year. Include what the police cost, on the average, each person in the community.

4. Find out what proportion of the persons arrested in your community are discharged without trial. Draw conclusions, from the facts, about the work of the police or courts in your community.

5. Visit the nearest police station. Before the visit send a committee to find the most convenient time for the trip and prepare a class list of ten questions to ask the police captain.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. * "Rules of the Game," *Fiber and Finish*, 7–14.
2. "State Police, an Antidote for Lawlessness," Anonymous, *In Our Times*, 225–229.
3. "Capturing Blackhanders," *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, 232–243.
4. "Finger Prints," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, III, 1247–1248.
5. * "Brave Guardians of Law and Order," *ibid.*, VII, 2865–2868.
6. "Maintaining Law and Order," *Readings in Community Life*, Part II, section 3.

II. Home Readings

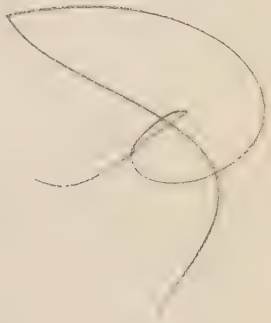
A. Biography, History, Travel, Essay

1. *The Boys' Book of Policemen*, by Irving Crump. Dodd.
2. *Guarding a Great City*, by William McAdoo. Harper.
3. * *The Standard Bearers*, by Katherine Mayo. Houghton.
4. *The Policewoman*, by Mrs. M. E. Hamilton. Stokes.
5. *My Experiences in Scotland Yard*, by Basil Thomson. Doubleday.
6. * *Uncle Sam, Detective*, by William A. DuPuy. Stokes.
7. *American Police Systems*, by Raymond R. Fosdick. Century.
8. *European Police Systems*, by Raymond R. Fosdick. Century.
9. *Our Police Guardians*, by John J. Hickey. John J. Hickey, New York.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. * *The Adventures of Sherlock Holmes*, by Arthur C. Doyle. Harper.
2. *Zone Policeman 22*, by Harry A. Franck. Century.
3. * *Famous Detective Stories*, by Joseph W. McSpadden. Crowell.
4. *Moonstone*, by Wilkie Collins. Burt.

5. *Samuel Lyle, Criminologist,* by Arthur Crabb. Century.
6. *The River's End,* by James Curwood. Grosset.
7. *The Hound of the Baskervilles,* by Arthur C. Doyle. Harper.
8. * *Corporal Cameron,* by Ralph Connor. Revell.
9. *Connie Morgan with the Mounted,* by James B. Hendryx. Putnam.
10. *The Luck of the Mounted,* by Ralph S. Kendall. Grosset.
11. *Hidden Eyes,* by Eric Levison. Bobbs.
12. *Craig Kennedy, Detective,* by Arthur Reeve. Grosset.
13. *Grey Riders,* by Frederic F. Van de Water. Putnam.



CHAPTER XI

PLANNING AND BEAUTIFYING THE COMMUNITY

What is lovely never dies,
But passes into other loveliness.

THOMAS B. ALDRICH

SECTION I. THE APPEAL OF BEAUTY

The love of beauty. We all love beauty. When we view pleasing aspects of nature, we share the emotions of Wordsworth even though we may not be able to express our feelings in such melodious lines as he employed in this stanza:

The rainbow comes and goes,
And lovely is the rose;
The moon doth with delight
Look round her when the heavens are bare;
Waters on a starry night
Are beautiful and fair.

Beauty has little or no connection with what we ordinarily mean by usefulness. We are willing nevertheless to pay more for lovely things than for the necessities of life. Diamond rings, pearl necklaces, and gold bracelets are of no value as protection from the cold, but they are beautiful; and most women and girls will give much more for them than for plain, warm clothing. Silver-mounted fishing-rods are no more useful in catching fish than poles covered with bark, but men and boys greatly prefer polished rods to rough poles from the thicket. In short, everyone loves beautiful things.

Personal control of beauty. To a certain extent we can all gratify our love of beauty within our own homes. Little money is needed to adorn a residence with a few pictures on the walls, with pleasing china upon the table, or with a plant or two upon the mantel or the window sill. Usually knowledge and effort are all that is necessary to secure an artistic color scheme in a room and to arrange the furnishings invitingly.

SIGNS OF THE TIMES

If you have ever taken a motor trip, you remember how the scenery along the road was disfigured by ugly signs advertising "hot dogs," "cherry juice," "ice cold pop," or "gas." Recently the people who live along the Cherry Valley route in New York made a tour of the highway, took down the offending signs, and had a huge bonfire.

Community control of beauty. Outside the home it is not so easy to make the surroundings beautiful. Factories and locomotives may blacken the sky, or ugly billboards may spoil the landscape, or dirty, narrow, treeless streets and highways may mar the neighborhood in spite of all that one person can do to remedy the vicinity. As a rule, only the community can better such conditions.

Early American communities. Most American communities were not planned. Like little black Topsy, they "jes growed." In early days the pioneers had too many tasks which had to be done, to be able to give much attention to making the vicinity beautiful. They had to cut down forests, grub out underbrush, root up stumps, and clear the fields of stones. They had to put up cabins, build bridges, and construct roads and canals. Usually they had no plans

for the community; sometimes their plans, although progressive for the times, fail to meet the conditions of today.

William Penn, for example, drew up what was considered a complete plan for Philadelphia. He provided for two main streets one hundred feet in width to run at right angles to one another; other parallel streets were to be

A PARKWAY IN PHILADELPHIA

When Philadelphia outgrew Penn's original plan, the city constructed this magnificent diagonal boulevard through the business section, at the enormous expense of removing more than a thousand buildings. Similar improvements are in progress in other parts of the city.

fifty feet wide. Penn also set aside space for a number of parks, and provided that sidewalks and streets were to be shaded by beautiful trees. He wished the City of Brotherly Love to be, as he expressed it, "a faire greene country towne."

But, splendid as Penn's plan was, it does not serve the Philadelphia of today. Since the city was laid out like a checkerboard, with the east-and-west streets at right angles to the north-and-south streets, the general effect is

tiresome, distances are increased, and traffic is hindered. Moreover, most of the early streets have proved too narrow for street cars, automobiles, and trucks; and at enormous cost the city has been forced to widen many of them. The original blocks were so large that, as the city grew and land increased in value, the owners built houses and tenements

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THE COW PATHS OF BOSTON

Many of the narrow, winding streets in the heart of Boston follow the same trails taken by the cows in early colonial days. Down one of them doubtless went the band of Americans dressed as Indians on the night of the Boston Tea Party.

on the rear of the lots, where they now face alleys and narrow lanes. In spite of Penn's plan, therefore, Philadelphia has many crowded sections in which the surroundings are ugly and the dwellings dark.

Of course Penn could not see that his "country towne" would become a great city, and his plan therefore embraced only a small tract of land. But as years passed, Philadelphia, like other settlements, grew rapidly, and what were once villages, miles from the center of the city, are

now included within its boundaries. Since the people who first settled the outlying towns had no idea that their settlements would ever become parts of Philadelphia, they laid out their communities as separate towns with no relation to one another. Now that the settlements are combined into one great city the effect is like joining dozens of buildings, each erected with no thought of the others, into a single, large structure.

Appearance of American communities. Because of a lack in planning, then, many American communities are like the ungainly building suggested in the last paragraph. Viewed as wholes, we find them sprawling, ill-jointed, overgrown, containing many spots of beauty, but wanting in harmony and unity. Buildings are jumbled together without regard to use or structure; parks are laid out in some sections, and none exist in others; trees abound in certain districts, and the streets are shadeless in less fortunate neighborhoods. The effect as a whole is depressing.

For the uninviting appearance of American communities the pioneers are not to blame. They had pressing problems to solve and had little time for making their settlements beautiful. Their work was to conquer the wilderness. We, who have gained by their hardships, are to carry on the tasks for which they laid the foundations.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Give two reasons why pioneers did not plan their settlements so as to make them beautiful and well fitted for future community needs.

2. Did the first settlers of your community follow any plan in founding the settlement? If so, is the plan still used?

3. Name two advantages in diagonal streets and roads.

4. What do you think Emerson meant by this statement, "Beauty is its own excuse for being"? Explain if you can, Keats's line, "A thing of beauty is a joy forever."

Section II. How the Other Half Lives

Slums. In his book, "How the Other Half Lives," Jacob Riis, at one time a newspaper reporter, tells of an experience while taking a flash-light picture of some blind beggars in a tenement building in New York City. The flash set fire to some paper and rags hanging on the walls of the attic room, and for a moment it seemed as if the five blind men and Riis himself would be burned to death. Conquering an impulse to bolt for the street down the crooked, rickety stairs, Riis smothered the flames, saving the tenement and its hundreds of inmates.

On telling his story a few minutes later to a policeman, Riis expressed concern lest some smoldering sparks might yet start a blaze and destroy everyone in the rotten structure. But the officer of the law only laughed. "Why, don't you know," he said, "that house is the Dirty Spoon? It caught fire six times last winter, but wouldn't burn. The dirt was so thick on the walls, it put out the fire."

The slums of our cities have improved since Riis wrote his book, but they are still ugly and unhealthy. Here our foreign population live in great numbers. Eager to save money, or poverty-stricken, or uninformed concerning the laws of health, men, women, and children crowd together in such districts, victims of ignorance or poverty, or a prey to the greed of landlords.

Light, air, and crowding. Of course the people who dwell in the slums suffer from the surrounding conditions. The air is bad and the light is wretched. Bedrooms are small and often without windows. What few windows there are in many instances open on ill-smelling shafts, inner courts, or narrow passages. The chairman of the New York Housing Commission describes a typical block in the slum area of New York City as follows:

> There is hardly an apartment in the block in which there are not one or more dark rooms — rooms without windows to the

outer air. The characteristic plan — that of sixteen of the houses — is of four three-room apartments to a floor. One room — and one room only — in each apartment opens on a street or yard. The other two rooms are dark or borrow a gleam of light from the neighboring room. They have no window to the air. Two of the houses contain airshafts, from which a certain amount of foul air and a little light may enter.

People live in such apartments in almost unbelievable numbers. A study of the Hull House district in Chicago showed 265 persons to the acre; in portions of the Slovak district the average was 322. One tenement district in New York City had an average of 696, a single block containing 1400 people. In one square mile lived over 400,000 people, — more than the total population of Denver or Seattle.

City ordinances usually provide that each adult shall have not less than 400 cubic feet of air space and each child under twelve not less than 200 cubic feet. Most surveys that have been made, however, show that such ordinances are hard to enforce. A few instances, "chosen at random," to quote a Chicago report, give an idea of the crowding that sometimes occurs.

In one case four children were found sleeping in a room which had only 722 cubic feet of air space. The room was windowless and quite dark, the only light and air coming from a small transom opening into the living-room. The parents of these children slept in a room which, though light, had scarcely three fourths as much air space as was necessary. In another instance five lodgers and a child were crowded into a room which could legally have been occupied by only three adults. Again, in a room large enough for only two adults slept five children and their grandmother. The oldest girl and the grandmother occupied the only bed; the others contented themselves with "shakedowns," which completely covered the floor of the small room. Perhaps the worst case of all was that in which a wide shelf over a basement stairway had been walled up until a tiny, light-proof, air-proof room had been constructed. In this box, containing only 125 cubic feet of air space, slept three men.

Animal pets. Animal pets, varying from pigeons and chickens to pigs, goats, and cows, add to the difficulties of housing. Although the keeping of horses, cows, sheep, pigs, and goats in tenements is forbidden, the law is evaded in much the same way as the ordinance requiring a certain air space to each person in the residence. In one city lived a very respectable couple with four live geese in one of their two bedrooms. Another family kept seven goats in a basement. A third family had two pigs and fifteen chickens in the cellar. In a fourth house twelve geese, ten chickens, and twelve pigeons were housed in the attic.

A MOUNTAIN HOME

In this one-room log cabin lighted by a single window live a family of twelve. Under similar conditions live thousands of Americans in the more backward sections of our country.

Rural housing. The housing problem is not limited to large cities nor to our foreign population. According to an investigation a few years ago, certain rural counties in one state abounded in ugly, leaky cabins, many times windowless, with damp floors, and containing rooms "incredibly small and stuffy." Over a third of the houses in the mountains contained only one or two rooms. More than half of the cabins housed families of six or more persons; one fourth had five or more occupants to each bedroom. In thirty-eight homes, from two to nine persons lived, cooked, ate, and slept in buildings consisting of a single small room. Similar conditions exist in certain rural neighborhoods of other states.

Results of bad housing. When people are crowded within a dwelling place, they cannot have the privacy necessary for the best type of home life. Forced to sleep in stuffy rooms, many of the children and grown-ups become diseased in both body and mind.

Naturally the crime rate in congested districts is higher than in more favored residential sections. In Milwaukee during a recent year one third of the child criminals came from a tenement district containing only one eighth of the city's population. London's most skillful pickpockets, it is said, are children from the slums. According to Jacob Riis, "the younger criminals seem to come almost exclusively from the worst tenement-house districts." For its own protection, then, as well as for the sake of the children, the community needs to safeguard the conditions under which its people live.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What seems the chief cause of bad housing in your community? If possible, suggest a remedy for the cause you name.

2. Should animal pets ever be kept in a city? Explain, with reasons.

3. Why is it hard to enforce housing regulations?

4. Which are more difficult to remedy, bad housing conditions in a city or in the country? Give reasons.

SECTION III. SUNLIGHT, ELBOWROOM, AND CONVENIENCE

The national capital. Shortly after the adoption of the Constitution, Congress decided that the permanent capital of the nation should be located on the Potomac River at a point to be selected by the President. Of all our great men none has had a finer sense of beauty than George Washington; the improvements he made in his home at Mount

Vernon provide one proof of the fact; another is his choice of a site for the national capital; a third is his part in planning the city that bears his name.

Chief credit for the design of the city, however, belongs to one of Lafayette's officers, Major L'Enfant, who had been in command of the American military engineers during the Revolutionary War. Appointed by Washington to design the new capital, L'Enfant visited the chief cities of Europe, studied plans submitted by Thomas Jefferson (also an able architect), and conferred frequently with the President concerning the enterprise. The result was a design that, with the exception of the park system, has not been improved in any important respect by the engineers and architects who have since modified it; indeed, most changes made by them have proved unwise.

L'Enfant planned to make Washington a model city to be completed in centuries to come. His design, which in most respects has been carried out, provides broad avenues traversing the city in diagonal lines and named after the thirteen original States. The avenues are crossed by narrower streets at right angles to one another. The streets which extend north and south are named for numbers; those running east and west are named for letters. With the Capitol building as a center, the city is divided into four sections known as Northeast, Northwest, Southeast, and Southwest, each having its own numbered and lettered streets.

The main feature of Washington is a magnificent kite-shaped garden, or park, called the Mall, extending to the west almost three miles from the golden-domed Library of Congress to the stately Lincoln Memorial on the banks of the Potomac. Forming the cross section near the western end of the Mall is a wide parkway flanked by public buildings constructed of pure-white marble. On the rising ground at the north end of the cross axis stands the White House; at the southern end is Potomac Park. On an

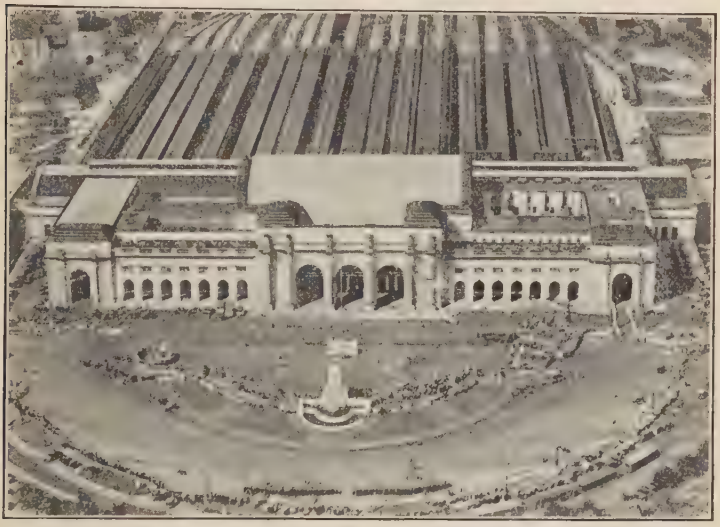
elevation near the eastern limit of the Mall is the Capitol, in which Congress and the Supreme Court hold their sessions. Along both sides of the Mall are government buildings. Near the crossing of the two axes is the white marble shaft erected in honor of Washington and considered by many artists the most majestic column in the world.

THE PLAN OF WASHINGTON, D.C.

The kite-shaped garden, or parkway, shown in the drawing, is called the Mall. To the east (the right) is the Capitol, near the center the Washington Monument, and to the west the stately Lincoln Memorial. North of the Monument stands the White House, and to the south lies Potomac Park. Many of the government buildings, indicated in white, have not yet been erected.

Washington is the best example of city-planning in the United States, perhaps the best in the world. The rolling surface, the location of noble buildings on commanding elevations, and the artistic and convenient manner in which the streets are laid out make our capital a city in which we can all take pride. As someone has said, "Every American has two home towns, and Washington is one of them."

Community planning. For years the example of community planning set by the national capital had little influence on the country as a whole. Not until the World's Fair at Chicago (1893) revealed the loveliness and convenience that may result from wise planning did people awake to the possibility of beautifying their home communities.



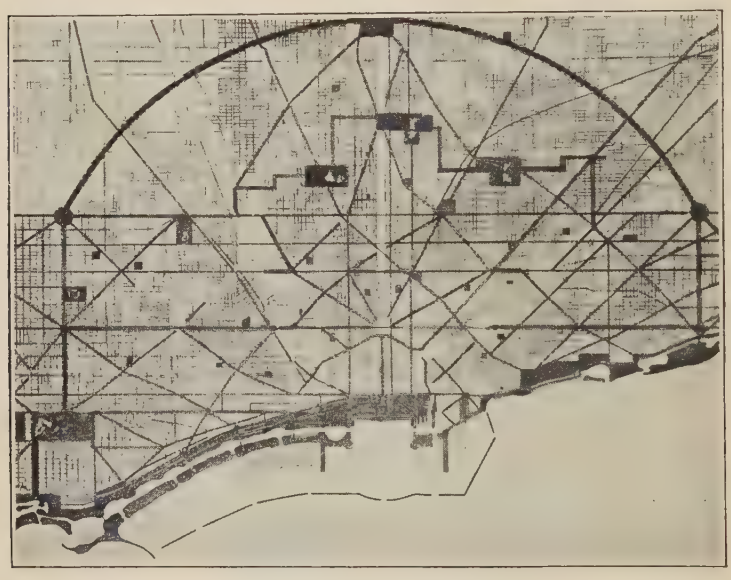
THE GATEWAY TO WASHINGTON

The Union Station in Washington, D. C., is designed for both service and beauty. In the background are the train sheds from which an incoming traveler enters the enormous passenger concourse, a room large enough to accommodate fifty thousand people at one time. As one leaves the station his eye first falls on the stately memorial to Columbus and then, beyond, on the majestic dome of the Capitol.

The movement in that direction was stimulated by transportation needs, housing conditions, difficulties of traffic, the growth of factories, and a better understanding of problems of health and sanitation.

City after city in recent years has appointed planning commissions to study community needs and to provide for future growth. Such commissions have found that streets

must be widened and diagonal avenues must be laid out. Parks, playgrounds, and public squares must be provided. Buildings must be erected with a view to beauty and economy, and public edifices must be located in convenient groups. It has also been found that the city needs to be



THE CHICAGO PLAN

From the civic center of Chicago are to extend broad, diagonal boulevards to the outskirts of the city. Bordering Lake Michigan is Grant Park, a downtown playground, which contains such buildings as the art gallery, the museum, the aquarium, and the stadium, and at the same time provides ample space for parking and for outdoor sports. In the lake a harbor, a series of artificial islands, and a row of lagoons are to be created.

divided into zones, or sections, for purposes of business, industry, transportation, and housing, and that planning must go on constantly to meet new needs caused by ever-changing conditions.

City plans. Examples will show more clearly what city-planning includes. The Cleveland plan provides for the

grouping of public buildings in a convenient center. A broad parkway six hundred feet wide is to extend from the retail business district to a magnificent union railway station, located so as to serve as the gateway to the city. On the sides of the parkway, which is to contain flowers, fountains, and statues, are to be erected a splendid library, a courthouse, and a city hall. On the lake shore is to be

A PART OF CHICAGO'S FRONT YARD

In the foreground is a large space for parking automobiles, the Lincoln Monument standing at the left. In the background is the Buckingham Fountain, a portion of the harbor, and in the distance, Lake Michigan. The region shown in the picture was formerly under water, the land having been entirely created by a filling-in process.

a beautiful park equipped with playgrounds and other recreational facilities. Much of the work has already been completed.

Probably the most extensive effort at city-planning is that of Chicago. At a cost of hundreds of millions of dollars, broad diagonal avenues are being cut through the rectangular blocks from the business center to the outlying districts; parks and parkways have been increased in numbers and in size; boulevards are to be laid out so as

to encircle the heart of the city at increasing distances. When completed, the street plan will resemble a spider's web. A large circular harbor is provided on the lake front. A park system over twenty miles in length is to be created by the filling-in process along the lake shore. Between the artificial park and the mainland are to be lagoons for

BEAUTIFUL HOMES OWNED BY WORKMEN

These homes in Kohler, Wisconsin, are owned for the most part by workmen employed in the Kohler Company factory, around which the village had its beginning. The houses, which were planned and built by the company, are sold to the workmen at cost. The village itself is the result of expert planning and is a model of convenience and beauty.

swimming, rowing, and yachting. The plan also provides for a museum, art gallery, extensive botanical gardens, an aquarium, the largest passenger station in the world, a stadium seating over one hundred thousand people, and a stately civic center surrounded by public buildings. Much of the work has already been finished; the rest is in progress.

Boston, St. Louis, Minneapolis, Los Angeles, Philadelphia, Detroit, Denver, Milwaukee, Baltimore, Pittsburgh, and a host of smaller cities also have begun extensive

planning projects. Some states require all cities over a certain size to have planning commissions; in other states the cities have acted of their own accord.

Housing conditions. Little has been done in the United States in the way of housing reform. Massachusetts has lent millions of dollars at a low rate of interest and for a long period of years to help its people erect dwelling places. North Dakota lends any citizen who can advance one fifth of the cost of a house and lot enough additional money to enable him to build a home. But compared with Canada, Australia, Great Britain, and European countries, we are far behind in the assistance we give to housing enterprises. Many Americans, in fact, believe that it is a mistake for the government to help provide homes for private individuals, that it is better for individuals to depend upon themselves for such needs.

Among the cities which have interested themselves in the housing problem Minneapolis is a leader. Its law requires that all buildings used for housing, except hotels, shall have yards on each side, adequate ventilation, decent sanitary arrangements, and modern safeguards against fire.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Give two reasons why a city should be planned. Do your reasons apply equally to a rural community? Explain.

2. Why was the national capital located on the Potomac River? See A. B. Hart's *Formation of the Union*, 148–149.

3. State three advantages and one disadvantage in L'Enfant's method of laying out and naming the streets of Washington. What aspects of city-planning did L'Enfant not foresee?

4. Explain with blackboard drawings the laying out of streets (1) by the checkerboard plan, (2) by the diagonal plan, and (3) by the spider-web plan.

5. *Volunteer enterprise:* Describe, with a diagram or drawing, the plans of one of the cities named on page 242.

Section IV. What you can Do

Although most of the work of planning and beautifying your community is beyond your power, much remains that you, and you alone, can do to make it attractive. A number of suggestions follow.

1. *Keep yourself neat and clean.* After all, the personal appearance of boys and girls, of men and women, plays a more important part in making a community attractive than do statues, fountains, parks, and boulevards. Usually you alone can keep your face and hands clean, your hair combed, your teeth white, your shoes polished, and your clothes brushed. Keep yourself neat and clean.

2. *Help to make your home attractive.* Begin in your own room. Be orderly and systematic. Have a place for everything, and keep everything in its place. On the wall hang pictures that you like and that you would like other people to see. Apply paint and varnish to the woodwork and to furniture that is scratched. Plant flowers in the yard and in window boxes. Keep the lawn mowed. Help to make your home attractive.

3. *Help to beautify your school.* Keep your desk shipshape. Put scraps of paper in the wastebasket. Help to provide pictures for the walls. Make flower boxes for the windows and bird houses for the yard. Protect the property of the school. Help to keep the playgrounds free from rubbish. Beautify your school!

4. *Make your neighborhood inviting.* Help to keep the streets, sidewalks, and alleys clean. Join with others in planting trees and shrubbery. Help to do away with unsightly places. Take pride in your neighborhood. Help to make it inviting!

5. *Help to beautify your community.* Suggest changes that will add to its charm. Do what you can to keep the parks and streets free from litter. Do your part in protecting the trees, shrubs, and plants. Help to beautify your community!

Summary. Everyone loves beauty. So far as personal surroundings go, we can gratify our desires in large part; but only the community can make the environment as a whole convenient and attractive. The early colonists, owing to their pressing wants and their inability to foresee community needs, were not able to plan their settlements so as to provide for modern conditions. As a result, most

A BACK YARD IN THE CITY

This luxuriant garden was made on a lot only twenty-five feet wide, in a thickly settled district in a large city. Flowers, a rock garden, and even a pool have been put into the small space, while the screen of massed shrubbery gives a privacy unusual in a crowded neighborhood. Does your yard offer similar opportunity for planting? (Courtesy of the Society of Little Gardens.)

American cities developed as ugly, ill-arranged communities with serious problems of health, transportation, and housing.

Following the building of Washington and inspired by the charm of the Columbian Exposition, many cities began to plan improvements. Their plans generally include (1) the arrangement of streets and parks so as to provide for the convenience and recreation of the community; (2) the erection of beautiful public buildings in effective groups; (3) the zoning of the city into residential, industrial, and commer-

cial districts, and (4) the reform of housing conditions. By taking proper care of our own persons, houses, schools, and neighborhoods, we can all help to improve our own communities.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name one way, not mentioned in this section, by which you can help to beautify your community.

2. Is Arbor Day observed by your school? Would the planting of trees improve your school grounds? the street where you live? your own yard? If so, find the best trees to plant and the best time for planting them. Point out the advantages of planting trees in groups in the parks.

3. Have your county or state governments done anything to promote beauty? Explain.

4. How does the height of city buildings affect light? How does it affect traffic?

THINGS TO DO

1. If several of you dwell in the same block, form a committee to find the area of the block and the number of people who live in it. Compare the population, per acre, with the population of the crowded districts of New York and Chicago, noted on page 234.

2. If you live in the country, report the number of people in the section of land in which your home is located. Also report the number of people living within the township. Compare the result, per acre, with that of New York and Chicago as given on page 234.

3. Draw a plan for your community. Include features that will make it (1) more convenient, and (2) more beautiful. Include a civic center, indicating the main buildings to be located there; show also the business, industrial, and residential zones into which you would divide the city. Estimate the approximate cost of the changes you would like to have made. If the class prefer, organize into committees to work out plans.

4. If you live in a rural neighborhood, suggest plans for making the community more convenient and more beautiful. Work by committees if you desire.

5. Bring pictures (snapshots, if possible) showing billboards, signs, and other features that disfigure your community. Discuss ways by which to do away with unsightly objects and views.

6. Make a scrapbook entitled "My Community as I should Like It." Include drawings, kodak views, pictures from magazines and newspapers, and other materials that will add to the value and attractiveness of your book.

7. Choose a school-grounds committee to make suggestions for beautifying the premises of your school. When the committee reports, discuss its suggestions in class and make plans to carry out whatever proposals the class adopts.

8. With the assistance of the folks at home make a civic inventory of your community. Copy the following form on a sheet of paper, marking with a cross (×) the standing your community deserves on each item, and connecting the crosses by a line running from the first item to the last. You will then have a profile of your community. Compare profiles and talk over differences. Then draw up suggestions for the improvement of your community.

COMMUNITY PROFILE

TRAITS	SUPERIOR	GOOD	FAIR	POOR	BAD
1. Friendliness		×			
2. Healthfulness			×		
3. Education		×			
4. Housing		×			
5. Recreation			×		
6. Beauty			×		
7. Transportation		×			
8. Business			×		
9. Employment			×		
10. Public Spirit			×		

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "Planning and Beautifying the Community," *Readings in Community Life*, Part II, section 5.
2. "New Ideals in City Planning," J. Nolen, *In Our Times*, 105–108.
3. * "The National Capital," *The American Government*, 473–484.
4. "City," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, II, 769–770.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. * *Johnny Appleseed*, by Eleanor Atkinson. Harper.
2. * *How the Other Half Lives*, by Jacob A. Riis. Scribner.
3. *The House on Henry Street*, by Lillian D. Wald. Holt.
4. *The Fairview Idea*, by Herbert Quick. Bobbs.
5. *Representative Cities of the United States*, by C. W. Hotchkiss. Houghton.
6. *Daniel H. Burnham, Architect and Planner*, by Charles Moore. Houghton.
7. *What of the City?* by Walter D. Moody. McClurg.
8. *The Battle with the Slum*, by Jacob A. Riis. Scribner.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *Queed*, by Henry S. Harrison. Houghton.
2. *V. V.'s Eyes*, by Henry S. Harrison. Houghton.
3. * *Lovey Mary*, by Alice H. Rice. Century.
4. *Tales of Mean Streets*, by Arthur Morrison. Boni.
5. * *Neighbors*, by Jacob A. Riis. Macmillan.
6. *Dreamers of the Ghetto*, by Israel Zangwill. Macmillan.

CHAPTER XII

AIDING THE HANDICAPPED

I was eyes to the blind,
And feet was I to the lame.
I was a father to the needy:
And the cause of him that I knew not I searched out.

JOB

SECTION I. THE CRIPPLED AND THE DISABLED

Victors over physical handicaps. When only fifteen months of age Jennie Brown was stricken with infantile paralysis and left a cripple for life. In spite of repeated operations she could not walk even with crutches and a brace. Cared for at home by her parents, she grew up with little education, totally unable to support herself. But one day it was discovered that Jennie had talent in drawing. She was given a course in commercial art, proved successful in her efforts, secured employment, and is now happy and contented in her work.

The story of Jennie Brown has been duplicated many times. One young man, when a child of four, was left so paralyzed by an attack of fever that he believed he should always be a burden to others; instead, he learned linotyping and is now the operator of a machine in a large printing house. A girl, barely able to walk owing to hip trouble, finished her high-school work successfully and is today a capable bookkeeper. A boy, who lost his right arm in an accident on his father's farm, now has an artificial arm and is serving satisfactorily as assistant engineer in a power plant, firing boilers, removing ashes, and taking care of the premises.

Victories over physical obstacles have become common only in recent years. In the old days persons so handicapped usually were cared for at home by relatives, or they were supported at public expense on poor farms and in county hospitals. Sometimes they became beggars. Such

A SCHOOL FOR CRIPPLED CHILDREN

Happy and contented, these children of the Dowling School are amusing themselves and at the same time are getting an education. The little girl with her book is learning how to read; the boys at the table, how to use their hands; and the girl on the floor, how to keep house. How does your community educate crippled children?

individuals now have opportunities to obtain an education and to become independent, self-supporting citizens.

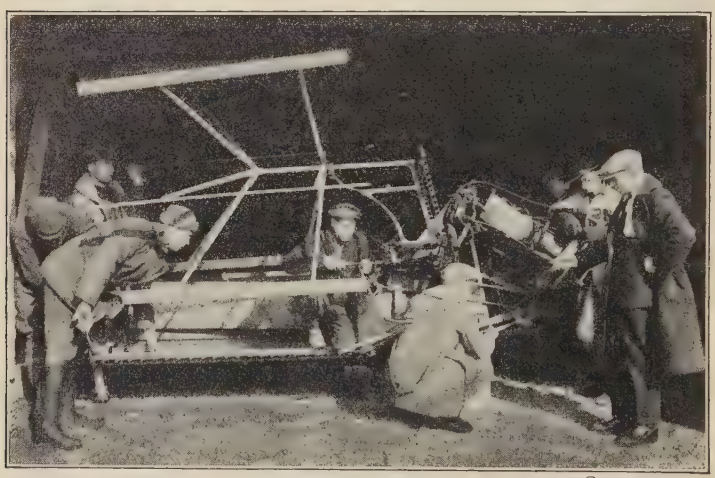
Crippled children. Today most communities have special schools or classes for children crippled from birth or for those who have become disabled by disease or accident. Minneapolis makes such provision in the Dowling School for Crippled Children. Housed at first in an old church and outfitted very poorly, this school now has a well-equipped

building situated in a beautiful woodland of twenty-one acres, the gift of a generous citizen. The school, which is one of the finest of the kind in the country, is supported by both the city and the state, the legislature having passed an act giving two hundred and fifty dollars annually for each pupil in attendance. In addition to courses in the elementary subjects, the Dowling School offers cooking, sewing, and manual training. It also provides pupils with the medical treatment they need to correct physical handicaps.

Disabled adults. The maiming in battle of large numbers of soldiers during the World War made people realize, as never before, the need for providing adult cripples with training to fit them for happy and useful lives. For years thousands of workers had been disabled by disease or by the machinery, chemicals, and explosives used in modern industry, but little had been done to prepare them for new employments. The war, with its tragedies, however, led to action, and within a short time state after state passed laws to assist persons suffering from physical handicaps to become self-supporting citizens. Congress, too, passed laws which, although intended first of all for disabled soldiers, provided financial aid to states that would undertake to prepare cripples for employment. Within five years thirty-nine states accepted the offer and began the work of helping the disabled to help themselves.

Rehabilitation work. Rehabilitation is intended to prepare disabled persons for paying occupations. The work includes, first of all, attempts at physical restoration. Medical or surgical treatment is often able to remedy stiff joints, injuries to nerves, and badly knit bones; thus, a seamstress, who had lost the use of her arm, was able to resume her work after the removal of a bony growth resulting from an injury to her elbow. In the second place, disabled persons are fitted with artificial arms, legs, or mechanical appliances which they are taught to use with ease and skill;

the farmer lad mentioned on page 249 is an example of such rehabilitation. In the third place, the knowledge and experience of disabled persons are sometimes used to start them in business for themselves; for example, Robert Smith, who lost his hand when at work in an establishment making imitation-leather goods, was enabled through the rehabilitation service to secure funds to open a shop of



© Ewing Galloway

LEARNING A TRADE

Uncle Sam goes to great expense to give disabled soldiers training that will enable them to support themselves.

his own and as a result is now running his own factory. In the fourth place, rehabilitation agents place persons whose disability prevents a return to their former occupation in work for which their handicap causes little or no difficulty. A young man, who had lost both feet in a railroad accident, could not go back to his work as a yardman, but his disability did not prevent his employment in a multigraph shop, and so well did he perform his work that within a year he was made foreman of the plant and is successfully directing its activities at the present time.

Finally, rehabilitation includes training or schooling in new lines of work, sometimes in a factory or store, sometimes in a school, sometimes by a private teacher, and sometimes by combinations of the three ways. For instance, a man paralyzed from the waist down became a stenographer through instruction given by a private tutor; also a carpenter, whose hand was so badly cut that he could no longer follow his trade, mastered architectural drafting in a commercial school.

A PROTECTIVE COSTUME

The electric welder wears this helmet to shield his eyes from the intense glare which might otherwise cause blindness. The clumsy body garment is worn also as a protection from the heat produced by the electricity.

Management and support. Rehabilitation as a rule is carried on jointly by the states and the nation. Direct charge of the work is in the hands of state officials, who investigate cases, plan training for disabled persons, and aid them in securing work. The Federal Board for Vocational Education aids in methods of restoration, but does not deal directly with persons who need rehabilitation. One of its important duties is to allot funds to the states that accept the provisions of the Federal law, an act requiring that for each dollar of Federal money used in rehabilitation the state shall give another dollar. The coöperation that has resulted has been of utmost value in promoting the work. Through rehabilitation thousands of persons who otherwise would be a burden to themselves and society become useful members of the community.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Tell about a disabled person who overcame his handicap so that he is now a useful member of the community.

2. Does your community have a school for crippled children? If so, how does the school differ from your own school? If not, how does your community care for crippled children?

3. Tell about a story in which a crippled person plays an important part. Name a famous historical character who was crippled.

4. What is the exact meaning of the word "rehabilitation"? Consult the dictionary.

5. *Reports for volunteers:*
   a. Marvels of modern surgery. See "Human Carpentry," in the *Literary Digest*, LXXIX, 26–27.
   b. Payment for bodily injuries provided in an accident insurance policy. Secure a sample accident policy from an insurance man.

Section II. The Blind and the Deaf

What it means to be blind or deaf. Shut your eyes and keep them closed for one minute. You now have a faint idea of what it means to be blind, — faint because you had a mental picture of your surroundings which a blind person does not have. Now stop your ears for a few moments. You can thus gain some small notion of the lot of those who go through life in silence.

So tragic does the loss of sight or hearing seem that most of us are likely to exaggerate such misfortunes. A blind man who was asked which he would rather have, his eyesight or fifty thousand dollars, replied at once that he should prefer the money. "I've lived in my own thoughts for a long time," said he. "I've been happy in them. They have given me the privilege of choosing my own company. True, I'm denied the beauties of the heavens, and the

colors and forms of flowers and trees. But, on the other hand, I'm spared the offensive sight of many things that men create and do."

We are mistaken about the blind and deaf if we think them helpless and unhappy, for nature has ways of paying for losses. The blind and deaf not only escape much ugliness, but they also develop remarkable keenness and quickness in their other senses and abilities. Most of them do not like to be pitied or patronized.

The blind and deaf in former times. The lot of the blind and the deaf is far brighter today than in the long ago. The Greeks and Romans often left blind or deaf babies in the forests or on the mountains to die of cold and hunger or to be eaten by wild beasts. Centuries later persons who could not see or hear were looked upon as idiots; they were feared and abused; their misfortune was thought to be punishment for sin. Handicapped by affliction, they could get food and clothing only by begging from passers-by. Not until the latter half of the eighteenth century were effective methods developed for their education.

First schools for the deaf. The first schools for the deaf were established in Europe. In 1755 an able Frenchman, the Abbé L'Épée, becoming interested in two deaf orphans, opened a school for the deaf near Paris. From that time on he gave his life to educate his pupils, inventing ways of teaching them, writing books about them, and giving lectures to arouse public interest in their welfare. At first he paid the expenses of the school out of his own funds, but in time the achievements of his pupils won him aid from others and at last brought support from the government.

Early in the next century schools for the deaf were opened in the United States. A group of men who had become interested in a little deaf girl gave funds to start a school and persuaded a young man named Gallaudet, then preparing for the ministry, to give up his studies and go to Europe to fit himself to be a teacher of the deaf. For over

a year Gallaudet studied the methods used in France and upon his return to America spent half a year more in completing plans for the institution. At last everything was ready, and the school, which was located in Hartford, Connecticut, opened its doors with six or eight pupils in attendance. From the first the enterprise was a success,

BLIND BOY SCOUTS

This troop of blind Boy Scouts have accomplished the difficult feat of cutting down a large tree, and the three boys at the left are splitting up the stump. While one lad with the utmost confidence holds the wedge in his hands, his blind companion strikes it with a sledge hammer.

and within a short time pupils from all parts of the country applied for admission. Before long similar institutions were established in other states.

First schools for the blind. Not long after the opening of the first school for the deaf a Frenchman named Haüy stirred to pity and anger at the abuse of the blind, determined to do something to better their lot in life. By hard work he succeeded in teaching a blind beggar lad to read

with the fingers and, encouraged by this success, opened a school for the blind, the first of the kind in the world. Supported in the beginning by private gifts, the school was finally taken over by the French government.

The founder of education for the blind in America was Dr. Samuel G. Howe. When a young man Howe had joined the Greeks in their struggle to win freedom from the Turks. Shortly after returning to the United States, he became greatly interested in the blind. About the same time several prominent citizens of Boston, learning of Haüy's school in Paris, took steps to establish a similar institution in this country and invited Howe to take charge of the work. He consented, but before beginning the task he followed Gallaudet's example and went to Europe to study the methods of instruction there. Upon his return in 1832 he opened the first school for the blind in America, now Perkins Institution for the Blind.

"SEEING" THROUGH HIS HANDS

Like Helen Keller, Tad Chapman, when very young, lost both sight and hearing. Unlike any other deaf-blind person he has been educated entirely through the oral method and uses only speech as a means of communicating with others. He talks in an ordinary manner and "hears" by placing his fingers over the lips of the person addressing him or sometimes by simply catching voice vibrations in the palm of his hand. He is here conversing with two of his teachers.

Dr. Howe's most famous pupil was Laura Bridgman, a girl who had lost both sight and hearing when only a baby

and whose senses of smell and taste also were very defective. Kindly and patiently Dr. Howe taught her not only to read and write, but also to talk with her fingers, to sew, crochet, and make beautiful lace. Largely by methods which he had used with Laura Bridgman, Miss Sullivan years later broke the prison bars which confined the mind of an even more remarkable blind and deaf girl, Helen Keller.

STUDYING GEOGRAPHY

The blind learn about the surface of the earth with the aid of a relief globe. Like boys and girls who can see, blind pupils study, skate, coast, and dance. Schools for the blind enrich the lives of their pupils and prepare them to support themselves.

Support and management. Early schools for the blind and the deaf were supported largely by private gifts and were controlled by private organizations. The schools were open to pupils from all parts of the country, however; and as they showed what could be done state after state not only gave money for their support but also established schools under public management. Today every state either supports one or more such institutions or provides instruction for the deaf and the blind elsewhere.

In most states pupils live at the institutions provided for them. During late years, however, special teachers and classrooms for the blind and the deaf have been established in ordinary public schools, which pupils attend only during hours of instruction. The day schools enable pupils to live at home, to be cared for by their parents, and to play with boys and girls who are not handicapped as they are. Many schools have also organized sight-saving classes in which pupils of defective vision are given large-type books

and adjustable chair-desks, so as to reduce eye strain as much as possible. The latest development in the education of the blind is the housing of pupils in families. In this way, it is maintained, they receive better care than in large institutions, and live a more normal home life.

THE JUNGLE GYM

These blind boys are feeling their way through the mazes of this labyrinth of bars with as much ease as you could. The rocking seesaw at the right looks as if it could furnish as genuine thrills as a roller coaster. The blind are frequently skillful gymnasts.

Education. The blind and the deaf receive instruction in the common branches and the care of the body; they also devote a great deal of time to music. Deaf pupils are taught to speak and to read lips. Both the blind and the deaf are taught how to earn a living. The blind learn sewing, typewriting, piano-tuning, broom-making, weaving, basketry, shoemaking, gardening, and poultry-raising; many of the blind do as useful work as people who can see,

but they do it in a somewhat different way. The deaf have succeeded in almost every occupation they have entered.

Gallaudet College, in Washington, D.C., is the only institution in the world devoted entirely to the higher education of the deaf. Supported by the national government, the college is open on equal terms to all the deaf in the country; its graduates include clergymen, editors, publishers, teachers, architects, artists, chemists, and farmers. Many persons who cannot see or hear have also made brilliant records in such universities as Harvard, Yale, and Columbia, and there is scarcely a profession in which they have not excelled.

Prevention of blindness and deafness. The saddest fact about blindness or deafness is that in most instances the handicap is unnecessary. The Census Bureau reports that the greatest single cause of blindness is injury from accidents, four fifths of which, it is said, might have been prevented. Another important cause of blindness is "sore eyes," which can usually be avoided through proper care of the eyes at birth. Medical inspection in the schools, proper lighting, prompt attention to any eye trouble, and suitable safety devices in factories and mines will in time reduce blindness to one third its present extent.

Deafness is not so easily controlled, for almost two out of every five deaf persons are deaf from birth; the deafness of the other three is usually caused in childhood by scarlet fever, measles, or adenoids; in later life by accidents, catarrh, or old age. Careful medical attention would prevent deafness in many such cases. Since the other instances of deafness are largely hereditary, only the prevention of the marriage of the deaf can greatly reduce their numbers.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why do most blind or deaf people dislike being pitied? How do the deaf find enjoyment in music?

2. Tell about the arrangements of your city or county for educating the blind; for educating the deaf. What provision does your state make for the education of either class?

3. Should money be given to beggars? Give reasons for your answer. Why do many communities have ordinances which forbid begging?

4. Does your public library contain books for the blind? If not, ask the librarian where and how such books can be secured.

5. Are the classrooms in your school properly lighted? Are the desks adjustable? Are the blackboards and tops of desks shiny? Tell the importance of each item mentioned.

6. Are the eyes of the pupils in your school regularly examined for nearsightedness and eye trouble? Are you taught how to take care of your eyes? Explain.

7. *Reports for volunteers:*
   a. The story of Laura Bridgman. See Lyman and Hill's *Literature and Living*, Book Three, 276–277.
   b. The story of Helen Keller. See Helen Keller's *The Story of my Life.* Tell which girl had the greater obstacles to conquer, — Laura Bridgman or Helen Keller.

SECTION III. THE FEEBLE-MINDED AND THE INSANE

Differences in minds. People differ in mental power quite as much as in height, weight, or color of hair. A few are geniuses like Shakespeare, Napoleon, and Lincoln; most are of ordinary capacity; some are not even able to take care of themselves. Although as many differences in mental ability appear in each group as there are individuals in the group, we usually have little difficulty in separating geniuses and folk of ordinary capacity from people who are mentally defective.

Two kinds of mental defectives. Mental defectives are of two different kinds: (1) the feeble-minded and (2) the insane. The feeble-minded have brains which never develop beyond the stage of childhood; the bodies of such persons grow up, but their minds remain childlike. Idiots, the most helpless of the feeble-minded, are like babies a few months old; they cannot talk nor understand when spoken to. Imbeciles, the class above idiots, have the mentality of children between three and seven. Morons, the highest of the groups, are like children between eight and twelve; they are in some ways the most dangerous of the feeble-minded because, although they have ability, they cannot be trusted, and their condition is often hard to discover until they have done some terrible deed.

The insane, on the other hand, are people whose brains have become diseased. Unlike the feeble-minded, who are usually defective from birth or early childhood, the insane for the most part are grown men and women. As a rule they have played useful and even brilliant parts in life before they became insane. Frequently they can be cured. Although they are sometimes responsible for having diseased brains, they are not accountable for what they do while insane.

Treatment of mental defectives in early days. In the past mental defectives were treated differently by different peoples, but nothing was done to help them. Spartans drowned children who were feeble-minded; Romans also put such offspring to death; Jews who lived in the time of Christ believed the insane were possessed by demons; people in the Middle Ages looked with fear and awe upon persons with unsound minds. Until a century ago dangerous madmen were loaded with chains and locked in jails or poorhouses; harmless lunatics and imbeciles were allowed to wander as beggars throughout the land.

First schools for the feeble-minded. In 1798 a boy eleven or twelve years of age was found wandering naked in a

forest near Paris. He lived on acorns, nuts, and roots; he walked at times on all fours like an animal; he fought with teeth and finger nails; he knew no language and showed few signs of intelligence. He was, in fact, feeble-minded.

The medical director of the school for the deaf became greatly interested in the boy and determined to educate him. For five years he worked earnestly, but, making little progress, became discouraged and dropped the undertaking. Thirty-five years later one of his pupils named Seguin took up a similar task, and at his own expense opened a school in Paris for feeble-minded children. So well did Seguin succeed that people became interested in the work, and within a few years similar schools were established in other parts of the world.

In our own country Dr. Howe was one of the first to attempt to train the feeble-minded. He had become interested in such unfortunates by trying to teach a child who was both blind and of unsound mind. Meeting with some success he next took a group of feeble-minded children and patiently taught them, bit by bit, what they could learn. Of course people laughed at him. "Do you know," said one man, "what Howe is going to do next? He is going to *teach idiots*. Ha! Ha!"

But Howe silenced ridicule by showing what he had done. The girls had learned to sew and the boys to work. About the same time came the news of the success in France, popular enthusiasm was aroused, and in 1848 Massachusetts voted money to establish an institution for the care and education of feeble-minded children. Other states soon did likewise.

Education of the feeble-minded. Aside from providing for their physical wants, little can be done for idiots. Some imbeciles and most morons can be taught to care for themselves and to become partly self-supporting. One imbecile lad who could not learn to read or write was able after a little instruction to put gas engines together very skillfully. Morons can usually learn to read, write, and do easy

problems in arithmetic. They can also master simple industrial and household arts. Girls can learn to sew, crochet, sweep, make beds, and cook. Boys can do simple carpentry, weaving, basketry, and gardening.

Feeble-minded pupils are misfits in ordinary schools, since they cannot profit from the regular work. Some cities have special classes for mental defectives who can be

MAKING BASKETS

Serene and happy, these children in a school for the feeble-minded are learning how to weave baskets. Girls also like to keep house, while boys enjoy work in the garden and simple carpentry.

educated safely in the community. Wisconsin grants three hundred dollars in state aid to each school district making provision for children so handicapped; Minnesota gives the local community one hundred dollars for each feeble-minded child thus cared for. The feeble-minded are happier and the community is safer when they are in separate classes or in special institutions.

Treatment of the insane. Insane persons are now looked upon as people who are suffering from a disease that is no

more a cause for shame than cancer or pneumonia. They are regarded as in need of medical care, wholesome food, plenty of air and sunshine, and, so far as possible, useful tasks and simple pleasures. Modern hospitals for the insane are usually large, roomy buildings in beautiful grounds and are under the control of skilled experts and physicians. In many institutions the patients do useful work and have entertainments and games which they greatly enjoy. Many regain their health and return to their occupations and friends.

Causes and remedies. Mental defects are caused chiefly by heredity, disease, and accident. One investigator found that over 75 per cent of the cases of feeble-mindedness he examined were due to heredity, 19 per cent to accidents and to diseases like influenza and epilepsy, and the remainder to alcoholic liquor, drugs, blows on the head, and mental strain brought on by fear, worry, and anger. Considerable doubt exists that insanity runs in families, but the other causes named seem to apply to it as well as to feeble-mindedness.

The evidence indicates, therefore, that the best way to reduce feeble-mindedness is to prevent the marriage of persons so afflicted in order that they may not pass on their handicap to their children. Such restraint, together with proper medical care, wider use of safety devices in dangerous occupations, and the destruction of the liquor traffic, will in large measure prevent mental handicaps.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Explain the difference between a feeble-minded person and one who is insane. Should there be any important difference in the kind of treatment or training they receive? Give reasons.

2. How does it add to the happiness and welfare of the feeble-minded to live in institutions? Name the kinds of work that feeble-minded persons can do.

3. Tell how the feeble-minded and the insane are cared for in your county or state. Can you suggest needed improvements?

Section IV. How we can Help

Two ways to help. We can all help to solve and lessen the problems of the handicapped in two important ways: first, by avoiding acts that may bring handicaps upon ourselves; second, by helping the handicapped to help themselves. We can promote the foregoing ends by observing the following rules:

1. *Never take chances.* Do not cross the street when traffic is passing. Never try to beat an automobile; wait until it has gone by. Don't "hook on" trains or trucks. When you come to a railroad crossing, stop, look, and listen; better lose a minute than lose an arm, a leg, or your life. Never take chances!

2. *Take care of your eyes.* Do not touch them with dirty hands or soiled face cloths. Avoid the common, or roller, towel: it is a spreader of disease. Do not neglect any trouble with your eyes; consult a doctor at once. Read and work with good light; have it come from above or over your left shoulder; avoid shadows on the page or task. Do not play with firearms or cannon firecrackers. Handle fireworks with caution. Take care of your eyes!

3. *Obey the laws.* Be careful not to injure private property. Don't ride your bicycle on the sidewalk. Do not play in the streets. Obey the laws!

4. *Help the disabled to secure an education.* Many children who are blind or crippled are not in school, because their parents fear that they may be hurt; you can help in such instances. Spread information about books, magazines, and music for the blind; since the mails carry such literature free, any blind person can obtain reading matter without difficulty through the state or city library. Help the disabled!

Summary. Every community contains persons who, because of physical handicaps, need special care. The most important of such classes are the crippled and the disabled,

the blind and the deaf, the feeble-minded and the insane. In the old days physical defectives were usually neglected, feared, and mistreated; in modern times many of them are educated so that they become happy, self-supporting, and of distinct value to the community. Even the feeble-minded, when cared for, spend their days usefully and with a large degree of contentment; and the insane, under proper treatment, are often restored to full mental health.

Prevention, education, and cure are the chief watchwords today in the treatment of the handicapped. Proper medical care would reduce physical disabilities, and the wider use of safety devices would go far to lessen industrial accidents. Self-interest and self-defense require that we guard ourselves against bodily disabilities and that, in every way possible, we help the handicapped to help themselves.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Suggest another rule to add to the list given in this section.

2. What is the meaning of the word "handicap"? Consult the dictionary. How does the word apply to the groups discussed in this chapter? Mention any other class of handicapped people.

3. Mention one way by which your school can help persons who are physically handicapped.

4. *Reports for volunteers:* The life and work of one of the following: L'Épée, Haüy, Seguin, Pinel, Elizabeth Fry. Look in the encyclopedia or the reading list.

THINGS TO DO

1. If your community has a school for crippled children or for the blind, arrange for a visit to the institution. Before going write out a list of points to observe; talk over the points suggested and draw up a class list. On returning from the visit discuss the information secured on each point listed.

2. Plan a picnic, an outing, or an entertainment for handicapped children in your community.

3. Make a poster illustrating dangers to sight and hearing or ways to avoid such dangers. Choose a committee to select the best posters for the bulletin board or for placing on the walls in the corridor.

4. Make slogans illustrating some point in each section in this chapter. The following is an example for the second or the fourth section: "Your eyes are your breadwinners: protect them!" Here is another: "Better safe than sorry."

5. If there are any blind people in your neighborhood, find whether they have plenty of reading matter and, if not, make plans to provide them with an ample supply.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "The Veteran's Bureau," *The American Government*, 401–408.
2. * "Training of Disabled Soldiers," Federal Board for Vocational Education, *In Our Times*, 502–505.
3. "Words and Speech as Aids to Thought," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 180–186.
4. "Remaking the 'Poor Whites,'" *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, 118–127.
5. "The Story of Jean Valjean," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, IV, 1694–1696.
6. * "Helen Keller," *ibid.*, V, 1916.
7. "Aiding the Handicapped," *Readings in Community Life*, Part II, section 6.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Travel, Essay

1. * *The Story of my Life*, by Helen Keller. Doubleday.
2. *Out of the Dark*, by Helen Keller. Doubleday.
3. *A Mind that Found Itself*, by Clifford W. Beers. Longmans.
4. "*Louder, Please!*" by Ernest E. Calkins. Atlantic.
5. *The Life of Sir Arthur Pearson*, by Sidney Dark. Hodder.
6. *The Light which cannot Fail*, by Winifred Holt. Dutton.
7. * *Two Noble Lives*, by Laura E. Richards. Page.
8. *Life of Mary Lyon*, by Beth B. Gilchrist. Houghton.
9. * *Hitting the Dark Trail*, by Clarence Hawkes. Holt.
10. * *The World I live In*, by Helen Keller. Century.
11. *The Girl who found the Bluebird*, by Georgette Leblanc. Dodd.
12. * *My Life in Prison*, by Donald Lowrie. Kennerley.

13. *Within Prison Walls*, by Thomas M. Osborne. Appleton.
14. *Elizabeth Fry, the Angel of the Prisons*, by Laura E. Richards. Appleton.
15. * *The Lady of the Lighthouse*, by Helen S. Woodruff. Doran.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *The Birds' Christmas Carol*, by Kate D. Wiggin. Houghton.
2. *Hans Brinker, or the Silver Skates*, by Mary M. Dodge. Ginn.
3. *Little Lord Fauntleroy*, by Frances H. Burnett. Scribner.
4. *Oliver Twist*, by Charles Dickens. Jacobs.
5. *Why the Chimes Rang and Other Stories*, by Raymond M. Alden. Bobbs.
6. *The Forest*, by Stewart E. White. Doubleday.
7. * *Jane Eyre*, by Charlotte Brontë. Crowell.
8. *Hide and Seek*, by Wilkie Collins. Dodd.
9. *Dr. Marigold*, by Charles Dickens. Jacobs.
10. * *Little Dorrit*, by Charles Dickens. Jacobs.
11. * *Les Misérables*, by Victor Hugo. Crowell.
12. *The Last Days of Pompeii*, by Sir E. Bulwer Lytton. Dutton.

PART THREE. GOVERNMENT AND CITIZENSHIP

CHAPTER XIII

MAKING LAW

All we have of freedom, all we use or know —
This our fathers bought for us long and long ago.
Ancient Right unnoticed as the breath we draw —
Leave to live by no man's leave, underneath the Law.

RUDYARD KIPLING

SECTION I. HOW LAW HELPS US

What law is. The world we live in is a world of order. Seeds sprout and plants grow in accordance with the laws of plant life. The wind blows and the clouds form in accordance with the laws of heat and moisture. An apple falls to the ground and the earth moves round the sun in accordance with the laws of gravity. Everything in nature acts in a regular, systematic manner or, as we usually say, in accordance with law.

What we call the laws of nature are simply statements of the ways in which nature always acts. If conditions are the same, the same result always occurs. Under similar circumstances water always boils at 212° Fahrenheit and always freezes at 32° Fahrenheit. Nature's laws are her rules of action, and she never fails to observe them. We can therefore count upon her and can plan our lives so as to take advantage of her methods.

We too have rules or laws to guide our conduct, for in human relations laws are merely rules of action established by custom or by rightful authority to control behavior. If the laws are fair and just, they provide equal rights for all, special privileges for none. Such laws, most Americans believe, are most likely to come from the action of the

people or their representatives, for we think that "what concerns all should be approved by all." Hence we hold that law is, or ought to be, the expression of the will of the people.

How natural law helps us. We could not live if nature did not act in the same way under like conditions. We should

CHEMISTRY LABORATORY

The science of chemistry would not exist if there were no natural laws. If an experiment brought one result one day and another totally different the next day, no deductions could be drawn. In fact, life itself would be unthinkable if we could not count on nature's laws.

be unable to raise food if cornstalks at one harvest yielded corn, at another harvest brought forth acorns, at a third harvest produced buckeyes, and at a fourth harvest grew nothing at all. Only as we can count on corn to produce corn, and wheat to produce wheat, can we sow seed and till the soil with confidence concerning the outcome. The world itself would fly to pieces and be destroyed were it not for the orderly, systematic way in which the universe behaves. We cannot imagine existence without law.

Man's progress in material things has been due to his discovery of nature's laws and his obedience to them. By finding how electricity acts he has been able to harness the electric current to cook food, light cities, and pull trains. By extending his knowledge of the laws of health he has been able to double the length of human life in little more than a century. By mastering law he is able to fly in the air, send his messages through the ether, and navigate the depths of the sea. Obedience to nature's laws has given him command of her resources.

How human law helps us. Law is just as important in guiding our relations with one another as in controlling the universe. No game can be played unless there are rules stating how it is to be played. They tell what each person may do and what he may not do. When the rules are observed each contestant has an equal opportunity to win.

People, too, cannot live together safely and happily unless there are laws, or rules of conduct, giving to all equal rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. When such regulations are provided, obedience to law means liberty for all. It was of such laws that Lincoln said:

> Let reverence for the laws be breathed by every American mother to the lisping babe that prattles on her lap; let it be taught in schools, in seminaries, and in colleges; let it be written in primers, spelling books, and almanacs; let it be preached from the pulpit, proclaimed in legislative halls, and enforced in courts of justice. In short, let it become the political religion of the nation.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is a law of nature? Give an example not mentioned above.

2. What is a human law? Give an illustration in your own community.

3. "Obedience to law is liberty." Give an illustration from science, showing the truth of the foregoing quotation.

4. "Just law is a friend to all." Give an example from your school showing the truth of the preceding quotation.

5. Give one reason why, in your opinion, Lincoln felt that law was so important.

Section II. The Kinds of Law we Have

Four kinds of human law. In response to human needs there have developed during the centuries four kinds of human law which exist for our benefit and are of concern to us. The kinds of law referred to are common law, statute law, constitutional law, and international law.

Common law. The English common law originated in early days, long before England was closely knit together. In those far-off times England had two kinds of judges to hear and decide disputes. The first were local judges, the second were judges appointed by the king. The local judges gave their decisions in accordance with the customs of the locality; while the king's judges, who traveled from community to community, came gradually to form their decisions in accordance not only with custom but also with previous decisions that had worked well elsewhere. Thus there developed through the decrees of the royal judges laws, or principles, recognized in all England, and as a result the practices that were purely local slowly died away.

When the early English colonists came to America, they carried their ideas and customs with them in much the same way as they brought their language, manners, and religious beliefs. Thus the English common law gained a foothold in America. Although, like the language and manners of the settlers, the common law was changed in many ways by conditions in the new land, it has lived on until our own day and is recognized and enforced at the present time by the courts of every state in the Union except Louisiana.[1]

[1] In Louisiana, which was first settled by the French, the courts observe the principles of the Code Napoléon.

The common law is made up of principles which for the most part tend to prevent injustice and tyranny. For example, it provides that no one shall be compelled to testify against himself, that an accused person shall be considered innocent until he is proved guilty, that no one may obtain money under false pretenses, that a widow has a right to a share in her husband's property, that ignorance of the law is no excuse for lawbreaking. The long life of the common law is largely owing to the fact that on the whole it is just and that its principles fit many different situations.

Statute law. With the passage of time new conditions developed and new problems arose. New roads and bridges were needed, new taxes were required, new kinds of disputes called for solution. To meet needs unprovided for by the common law men developed statute law.

Statute law is the work of legislative bodies, such as our national Congress, state legislatures, or city councils. Unlike common law, which deals with general principles or rules of conduct and is written only in the decisions of judges and in books on law, statute law deals with specific details, such as the width of a road, the cost of a bridge, or the penalty for a crime. Statute law is drawn up in black and white by legislators, or lawmakers, and may be found in statute books. If statute law and common law disagree, the courts give their decisions in accordance with the statute.

Constitutional law. Americans have always been familiar with written documents similar in many respects to those that we call constitutions. Whenever disputes arose in colonial days over the powers of the government or the rights of the settlers, appeal was made to the charter, the patent, or the royal instructions given to the governor. With such experience it is natural that, when Americans came to set up their own governments after declaring themselves independent of Great Britain, they should have adopted written documents or laws describing the

machinery and defining the powers of their newly-created governments. To such documents or laws we give the name constitutions.

A constitution and constitutional law deal with the framework and powers of government. As a rule a constitution also contains a statement of the rights of the people with which the government must not interfere; as, for example, the right to speak freely. A constitution is intended to provide government to meet the needs of society and to prevent government from injuring its creators.

International law. International law, as we have seen in an earlier chapter (pp. 152–153), is law that regulates the relations of nations with one another. Much international law originated in custom; the practice of primitive tribes in safeguarding envoys or messengers from other tribes even in time of war is an early example. International law also developed from treaties and agreements between nations, from conferences of their representatives, and from the writings of great jurists, as specialists in law are called. International law, as it applies to individuals, is recognized and enforced in the courts of all civilized countries.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Tell how the common law originated and why it came to be called the "common" law. Do you see any connection between the use of the word "common" in the following terms: common noun, common factor, common denominator, common law? Explain and illustrate.

2. Why did statute law originate? Give an example of statute law in your community. If a statute and a principle of the common law conflict, which will the courts enforce? Why?

3. What is a constitution for? If we were able to govern ourselves directly instead of through representatives, would constitutions be necessary? Are you sure?

4. Which is international law most like — common law, statute law, or constitutional law? Give reasons.

Section III. Making and Changing Constitutions

Why we need constitutions. If you and your classmates were to form a club, or society, you would have to decide what the club was for, what officers you needed, what their duties and powers were to be, and when and where to hold your meetings. To avoid later disagreements, you would find it helpful to put your decisions in writing. If you did so, the paper you would draw up would be the constitution of the club, and the activities of the organization would be guided and controlled by its provisions. In like manner, our governments are made up of officials having the right to exercise only such power as the constitution and laws grant them.

It was not so in the long ago. Power then rested in one person known as the chief or king, or in a group of persons who ruled largely as they pleased. Under such conditions the people were at the mercy of their rulers. If the chief seized their property or the king clapped them into prison, they could do nothing but submit, protest, or revolt; the character of the government depended entirely upon the will of the rulers. Government was by *persons*, not by *law*.

How constitutions developed. The cruelty and injustice that often resulted from personal government led gradually to the establishment of constitutions. In England the people tried to protect themselves by forcing their rulers to recognize their liberties in such famous documents as Magna Charta and the Bill of Rights. In America, after the separation from Great Britain, the Americans tried to guard themselves by adopting constitutions in which the rights of the people and the powers and limitations of the new governments were clearly stated.

The way the people set up governments over themselves is well illustrated by what Massachusetts did in 1780 and by the manner in which our national Constitution came into being a few years later. In Massachusetts the Revolu-

tionary government that had taken charge of affairs when the break came with the mother country asked the people if they wanted a constitution and, if so, to elect delegates to a convention to draw up a constitution. The voters answered the first question in the affirmative and promptly chose delegates as suggested. After adopting a constitution the convention submitted the document to the people, who discussed it in town meetings and ratified, or accepted, it. The officers provided for in the constitution were then elected and the new government went into operation.

Meanwhile conditions in the country as a whole went from bad to worse. For a time it seemed that the union brought about by the Revolutionary War would end in division and conflict. From such a fate the nation was saved by the Constitutional Convention.

This famous assembly, which included among its members Washington, Franklin, Hamilton, and Madison, met in Philadelphia in 1787. Here, day after day and week after week, during the hot summer months the convention worked earnestly to draw up a plan for "a more perfect union," and in spite of serious disagreements at last finished the task and submitted its work to the people. After a hard contest all the states ratified the Constitution and it became the supreme law of the land.

What a constitution contains. A constitution tells what the government is and what it can do and cannot do. If the legislature passes an act which the constitution forbids, the court will not recognize it as law. Some years ago, for example, the New York legislature passed an act limiting the hours of work for employees in bakeries. One baker refused to obey, holding that the act was contrary to the state constitution. He took the matter to court, and the highest tribunal in the state, to which the case finally came, decided in his favor, declaring the law void because it violated the constitution. Some time later the constitution was changed so as to give the legislature power to pass laws limiting

hours of labor in certain occupations, and today such laws are in force in New York. The important point in the incident, however, is not the changing of the constitution, but the way in which the constitution limited the power of the legislature.

The most important provisions in a constitution are (1) a description of the government, including a list of the officers and their duties; (2) a statement of the powers of the government; (3) a method by which the constitution may be changed, or amended; and (4) a list of the rights of citizens with which the government cannot interfere.

How to change constitutions. Constitutions may be amended, or changed, in a number of ways. In many states an amendment before it becomes a part of the constitution must (1) pass both houses of the legislature (in some states passage by two successive sessions is required), and (2) be approved by a majority of the citizens voting upon it or (in some states) by a majority of the citizens voting in the election at which the amendment is submitted. A few states permit a certain percentage of the voters to propose an amendment by sending a petition containing the change they wish to the secretary of state, who must then place the proposal on the ballot to be voted upon at the next election; if the majority of the voters approve the suggested amendment, it becomes part of the constitution. The methods of amending the national Constitution are described in Article V of that document (see page 728).

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Tell about the constitution of some club you once joined. How did the constitution help the club?

2. Explain the chief difference between government by *persons* and government by *law*.

3. Give five provisions in the bill of rights of the constitution of your state.

4. How many constitutions has your state had? When was the present one adopted? Compare it with earlier constitutions as to length; as to provisions. What are the chief differences between your present state constitution and your first one?

5. Compare the national Constitution with the constitution of your state as to (1) length, (2) arrangement, and (3) character of provisions.

6. How can the national Constitution be amended? Is the method of amendment too difficult? Give reasons for your answer. Find the hardest part of the Constitution to amend (see Article V).

Section IV. Making Statute Law

How statute laws begin. Not long ago an aviator drove his airplane over the great Yale Bowl, the athletic stadium in New Haven, where more than 70,000 people had gathered to see the annual Harvard-Yale football game. Over the crowd the aviator flew, looping the loop, making nose dives, doing tail spins, and performing other thrilling feats. Had anything gone wrong with the motor or had the flier made a mistake in judgment, his plane might have crashed into the crowd, causing the death of many people.

At that time no law forbade the flying of airplanes above large crowds. But after the incident public opinion expressed itself in the resolutions of clubs and societies, in editorials and articles in newspapers, and in petitions and protests to the Connecticut legislature. As a result, that body passed a law making it illegal for any aviator to fly below a certain height over a large public gathering and providing heavy penalties for violation of the law. The episode illustrates one way in which statute laws come into being.

Statute laws originate as a rule with a person or group of persons. If your father believes that child labor is harmful, he may call on or write to the representatives from your district in the legislature, asking them

to introduce a bill to forbid the employment of children in industry. Or he may bring up the subject before some organization to which he belongs, arouse the interest of the members, secure their support for a law to prohibit child labor, and obtain a vote from the society directing the officers to write to the local representatives in the legislature and urge them to work for such legislation.

International Newsreel

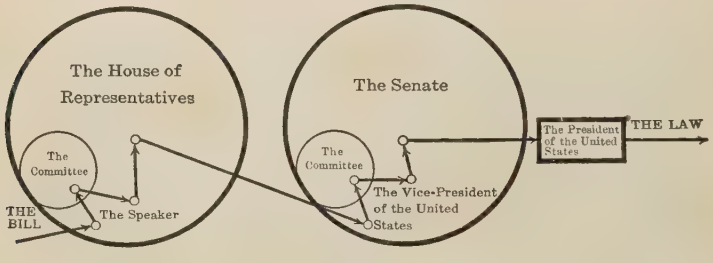
THE YALE BOWL

New inventions or new conditions often necessitate the making of new laws. An airplane circling low over a crowd like this in the Yale Bowl caused the legislature of Connecticut to pass a law prohibiting airplanes from flying below a certain height over a large gathering of people.

Laws usually come from what people think and want, that is, from public opinion. Public opinion is made by private individuals, by clubs and societies, by newspapers, magazines, and moving pictures, and by sermons, speeches, and talks. Sooner or later, some member of a lawmaking body, — the county board, city council, state legislature, or Congress, — realizing that strength of public opinion on some question, will introduce a measure to make into law what he wants or what he thinks the people want.

Introducing bills. A member of the legislature who wishes to introduce a bill, as a proposed law is called, must first put his ideas in proper legal form. Sometimes the people who want the law provide him with a copy of the measure they desire. Many states have legislative reference bureaus in which legislators can obtain expert aid and reliable information in drawing up bills.

After a measure is in proper form, the legislator hands it to the clerk or drops it into a basket, or hopper, kept for



THE MAKING OF A LAW

The arrows show the main steps in the passage of a bill through Congress. If a measure is introduced in the Senate, the arrows, of course, will point in the opposite direction. What changes should you make to show the course of a bill when a conference committee is needed? (Reproduced, by permission, from "The Teaching of History," by Paul Klapper; published by D. Appleton and Company, New York.)

that purpose in most legislative chambers. The bill is then read by title by the clerk, given a number, ordered to be printed, and sent by the presiding officer to the committee which has charge of matters treated in the measure. The reading of the title is called the first reading. Under the rules no measure can become law without three readings on three different days, a requirement intended to prevent hasty and unwise legislation.

Any member may introduce as many bills as he wishes. In some states, however, bills cannot be introduced within a certain number of days before the end of a legislative session. This is to prevent the crowding of measures during

the last days of the session, when bills cannot be carefully considered and might therefore be passed in haste or rejected without fair examination.

Legislative committees. As a rule thousands of bills are introduced during a single legislative session. In a recent Congress almost twenty-five thousand measures were

A CONGRESSIONAL COMMITTEE

This legislative committee of Congress is holding a public hearing. The people sitting at the rear right are visitors, the chairman of the committee is at the extreme left center bending slightly forward, and the other men at the tables are members of the committee, stenographers, and newspaper reporters.

handed in. Since no legislator could possibly examine every bill, most of this legislative work is done by committees.

Committees are usually composed of from five to ten members, standing committees in Congress being somewhat larger. Committees have practically complete control over all bills sent to them. They may combine several measures into one or divide one measure into several; they may change a bill so that the originator cannot recognize it, or they may substitute a totally different measure; if they choose, they may do nothing whatever. In fact, the great

majority of bills sent to committees are never heard from again; they are then said to be shelved, or pigeon-holed in committee.

Committee meetings are generally secret, but public hearings are often held for measures in which people are seriously interested. At a public hearing the friends and the foes of the bill appear to argue for or against the measure and to answer questions which may be asked concerning it. If a majority of the committee approves a bill, it returns the measure to the house with a recommendation for passage.

Legislative action on bills. The bill is now given a place on the calendar, or list of measures before the house, and in time comes up for the second reading. This reading is usually accompanied by debate; sometimes the measure is amended and occasionally returned to the committee for changes. If the bill passes the second reading, it comes up at some later time for its third reading. If passed by a majority of the members present, it is signed by the presiding officer and sent to the other house. Here the same process is followed — committee examination, the three readings, and so on. If the measure passes these barriers successfully, it goes to the governor for signature or, in the case of national laws, to the president.

If a bill is changed in any way during its passage through the second house, it must be sent back to the house from which it came. If this house accepts the changes which have been made, the measure then goes to the governor or, as noted above, to the president; if the changes are rejected, the two houses usually appoint a conference committee composed of members of each house to see whether a compromise can be reached which will permit the measure to become law. If the conference committee fails to agree, the bill dies; if the committee reaches an agreement and its recommendations are adopted by both houses, the measure goes to the governor or the president.

If the chief executive signs the bill, it becomes law; if he vetoes the bill, the only way it may become law is by passage over the veto. In most states, and in Congress, this requires a two-thirds vote of each house and is usually difficult to secure.

If the president does not act upon a measure within ten days, not counting Sundays, it becomes law without his signature, provided it has been sent to him not less than ten days, excluding Sundays, before the end of the session. If a measure is sent to him less than ten days before the session ends, it does not become law without his signature; a failure to sign under such circumstances is called a pocket veto. Similar rules are in force in most states.

THE PRESIDENT SIGNING BILLS

The bills on the table have passed both houses of Congress and President Coolidge has come at the end of a legislative session to sign such as he approves, thus making them laws. The men about him are senators and representatives who have an especial interest in the measures.

Practices and problems of legislatures. The making of national law is often affected by a practice in the Senate called filibustering. Until a few years ago a senator could speak on a measure as long as he liked. The custom made possible a thorough discussion of proposals; but it led at times to serious abuse, for it enabled a small group of senators toward the end of a session to kill a measure with talk. On one occasion, for example, a senator was able to defeat a bill desired by a large majority of the members, by talking for seventeen hours against it. The popular

opposition to filibustering caused the Senate to change its rules, so that today, whenever it cares to do so, the Senate may limit each senator to a speech of one hour upon the measure which it is considering.

Each branch of the legislature must keep a journal of its proceedings, in which, upon the demand of one fifth of those present, the votes on any measure must be recorded. The *Congressional Record*, published every day when Congress is in session, contains the speeches and votes of congressmen, brief summaries of bills, and, occasionally, short reports of government officials and boards. As a rule, the long addresses which appear in the *Record* are never given in Congress, but are published — usually for political purposes — by permission of the house.

The decisions of committees and also of legislatures are often influenced by lobbyists. Lobbyists are persons, usually representing private interests and organizations, who try to get legislators to support or oppose certain measures. The control of lobbying is one of our most difficult legislative problems.

Direct legislation. Lawmaking bodies sometimes fail to pass measures the people desire and occasionally pass measures the people do not desire. Such conditions have led to the adoption in some states and cities of the initiative, or the referendum, or both, in order to enable voters to have a direct part in lawmaking.

By the initiative a certain percentage of the voters can, by petition, compel the lawmaking body to submit to popular vote a measure which the petitioners propose; if the measure is adopted by a majority of the voters, it becomes law. By the referendum a certain number of voters can, by petition, force the legislative body to refer to the voters any measure it has passed; if the voters refuse to approve the measure, it does not become law.

The initiative and referendum have been severely criticized because of the expense they involve and because

many citizens show little interest in them. They seem to have served a useful purpose, however, by enabling the people to control legislation. Where such devices are in operation it has not been necessary to use them often, but the possibility that they may be used has served, apparently, to remind legislators of their obligation to carry out the people's will. Experience with the initiative and referendum, however, is still too limited to justify a final conclusion concerning their merits or defects.

Summary. Our world is a world of law. Were it not so, life would be impossible. Man's progress in material matters has been due to his discovery of nature's laws and his obedience to them. Law is equally important in guiding our relations with one another, for only by the establishment and observance of just laws is liberty possible.

Four kinds of human law control and regulate our lives. Common law, which arose in England centuries ago, is based on custom, has been developed by courts, and deals with principles of justice. Statute law, which is the work of legislative bodies, is written in black and white, deals with details rather than principles, and originates with individuals or groups of individuals. Constitutional law limits and defines government and is intended to protect society from harsh and arbitrary rule. International law began in custom, has been developed in treaties and conferences, and is confined to relations among nations. All just human law has come into being to meet human needs. For our own welfare as well as for the good of others we should respect and observe it at all cost.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. If the people in your neighborhood desire a law to protect birds, what should they do to secure the measure?

2. Do legislative committees have too much power? How are committees appointed in your state legislature? Why is the

method of their appointment important? What committees has your city council?

3. Tell one way in which a city charter is like a constitution; one way in which it is different.

4. Define initiative and referendum. Can one device be in operation and not the other? Explain. Is either in use in your community? What is the chief resemblance between the town meeting and the initiative and referendum? What is the chief difference?

5. Compare the steps in the making of an ordinance by a city council with those required in the making of a law by a state legislature.

6. What is the number of the present Congress? If Congress is in session now, tell whether it is holding the long, the short, or a special session. In which session are most laws passed? Why?

THINGS TO DO

1. Choose one member of the class to write to the secretary of state in your state, asking for copies of state laws; choose another classmate to write to your city clerk, requesting copies of city ordinances. Have each of them read to the class the opening words of the documents he obtains and explain what they mean.

2. Choose teams of three each to debate this question: *Resolved*, That our state should adopt the initiative and the referendum.

3. Organize as a civics club and draw up a constitution giving the purpose of the club, a list of the officers and their duties, and a description of the way the club meetings are to be conducted.

4. Carry on the meetings of the class for a week in accordance with the constitution you adopt as suggested above.

5. Organize as a city council or a county board and pass an ordinance that you think your community needs.

6. Organize as the Committee on Appropriations of the national House of Representatives and consider a bill to appropriate $1,000,000 to provide suitable memorials for Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson. Have a public hearing to listen to arguments for and against the measure from two friends and two foes of the bill. (Four members of the class volunteer to address the committee.)

7. Two pupils volunteer to draw a series of pictures portraying the course of a bill through Congress from its introduction to its enactment into law.

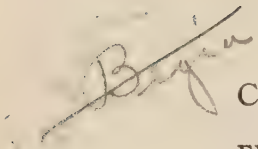
BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "How Laws are Made," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 368–373.
2. "President McKinley's War Message," W. McKinley, *In Our Times*, 239–240.
3. "The House of Representatives," *The American Government*, 303–316.
4. "The Senate," *ibid.*, 317–330.
5. * "How Congress Legislates," *ibid.*, 331–342.
6. "Congress and how it Makes Laws," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, II, 860–862.
7. "Making Law," *Readings in Community Life*, Part III, section 2.

II. Home Readings

1. * *The Story of Our Constitution*, by Eva M. Tappan. Lothrop.
2. *Your Congress*, by Lynn Haines. National Voters' League.
3. *The Business of Congress*, by Samuel W. McCall. Lemcke.
4. * *The Gentleman from Indiana*, by Booth Tarkington. Doubleday.
5. *Law for the American Farmer*, by John B. Green. Macmillan.
6. *Young Citizen's Own Book*, by Chelsea C. Fraser. Crowell.
7. *Story of the Law*, by John M. Zane. Washburn.



CHAPTER XIV

ENFORCING LAW

Free government has no greater menace than disrespect for authority and continual violation of law. It is the duty of a citizen not only to observe the law but also to let it be known that he is opposed to its violation.

CALVIN COOLIDGE

SECTION I. WHY WE NEED LAW ENFORCEMENT

Law and liberty. "Obedience to law is liberty!" These five words are carved in large letters above the main entrance to the old courthouse in Worcester, Massachusetts. They stand as the basis of rule by the people; for unless the will of the people as expressed in law is carried out, the people do not rule. And only as the people rule is liberty secure.

The preceding statements are all true if we assume that the laws provide equal rights for all. When such is the case anyone who breaks a law takes away rights that belong to someone else and by so doing lessens the other person's liberty.

Stop-and-go lights, for example, are intended to give to all equal rights to the use of the streets or highways. A driver who disregards a red signal prevents other autoists from driving in safety. Again, boys and girls who "jaywalk" across the street not only endanger themselves but also interfere with the rights of drivers of automobiles and trucks. In all such instances the breaking of law means loss of liberty to someone.

Fair play. Enforcement of law is necessary, then, in order to insure fair play. In a baseball game a base-runner who cuts third base, thereby shortening the distance to the home

plate, breaks a rule of the game. If his action is allowed to stand, his team secures an unfair advantage over the opposing team. In justice to the latter, the umpire must enforce the rule and declare the runner out; in no other way can fair play be established.

A good citizen obeys the laws for the same reason that a true sportsman observes the rules of a game. Both love

FAIR PLAY

If the man racing for second base in this World-Series game between New York and Pittsburgh cuts the corner without touching the sack, the umpire will declare him out because he has violated a rule of the game. Failure to do so would give an unfair advantage to the team at bat.

fair play and both scorn to take an unfair advantage of someone else. To protect honest individuals against those who violate the rights of others, the laws must be enforced. Only by so doing can the liberty of all be safeguarded. This fact caused Lincoln to say many years ago:

Let every American, every lover of liberty, every well-wisher to his posterity, swear by the blood of the Revolution never to violate in the least particular the laws of the country, and never to tolerate their violation by others. As the patriots of seventy-six died to

support the Declaration of Independence, so to the support of the Constitution and laws, let every American pledge his life, his property, and his sacred honor. Let every man remember that to violate the law is to trample on the blood of his father, and to tear the charter of his own and his children's liberty.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention one feature of a just law; one feature of an unjust law. Find examples of just and unjust laws in American history.

2. Give an example, not mentioned in the section, showing that the violation of a just law lessens the liberty of someone else.

3. Why is law enforcement necessary to fair play? Give an example from some game or sport. Then give an illustration from community life.

4. Mention two ways in which good citizens and good sportsmen are alike.

5. Explain the last sentence in the quotation from Lincoln at the end of the section.

Section II. Enforcing Local and State Laws

Two aspects of law enforcement. Law enforcement involves two kinds of activities: first, work of a business nature; second, work of a police character. Laws relating to the collection of taxes, the management of a water plant, and the care of public property deal with the business side of government. Laws governing the preservation of order, the punishment of crime, and the rights of individuals concern the police side of government. In the one instance, the government may be regarded as a business concern engaged in carrying on enterprises for the people; in the other, the government may be looked upon as a police force employed in executing the laws that guard personal rights. The two types of work merge into each other, so that it is often difficult to separate an administrative act, as the first may be called, from an enforcement act, such as the

second; but the two kinds of work are different, and the distinction between them will help us to understand what is involved in carrying out law.

Law enforcement by town officers. In town government, as we have seen, the town meeting makes the laws of the locality and chooses officers to carry them out. The town officers chiefly engaged in law enforcement are the

A COUNTY COURTHOUSE

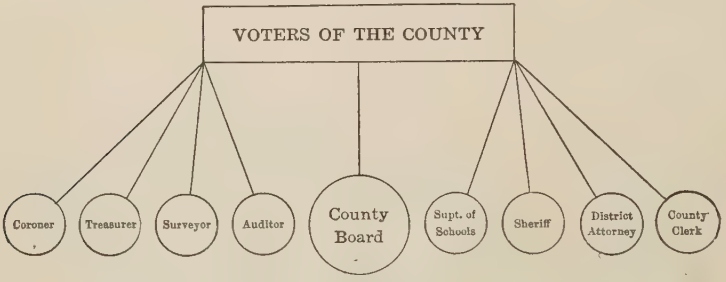
The offices of the county are located in the county courthouse. This unusually beautiful building is in Riverside, California.

selectmen, school board, clerk, treasurer, constables, and overseers of the poor. Their term of office is generally one year, but they are frequently reëlected.

The selectmen, usually three in number, have general charge of town affairs during the year. They act on questions arising when the town meeting is not in session, have charge of town property, and carry out many of the measures adopted by the town meeting. The school board appoints teachers and has general control over the schools. The town clerk calls the town meeting to order, keeps the minutes of its proceedings, issues marriage licenses, and

records births and deaths. Overseers of the poor have charge of poor relief. Most of the work of the foregoing officers is administrative. The constables alone are police officers serving primarily to guard the public safety.

Law enforcement by county officers. The county board is the chief ruling body in the county. In addition to such legislative work as levying taxes for county expenses and passing ordinances for county needs, the county board looks after roads and bridges, cares for the poor, and takes charge of county buildings. Other officers found



COUNTY GOVERNMENT

This diagram shows only the most important county officials. Why is the circle representing the county board made larger than the other circles?

in most counties are the treasurer, auditor, recorder, county clerk, superintendent of schools, coroner, district attorney, and sheriff. The work of all but the last three is chiefly administrative.

The treasurer receives, safeguards, and pays out county funds. The auditor examines all accounts of county officers and usually must approve all bills against the county before the treasurer will pay them. The recorder registers mortgages, deeds, and transfers of land. The superintendent of schools supervises the county schools. The county clerk prepares the docket of the court (a list of all cases for trial), keeps a record of the proceedings of the county board and the county court, issues marriage

licenses, keeps a register of births and deaths in the county, and, in some states, records deeds and mortgages.

The sheriff, coroner, and district attorney have as their main duty the preservation of order. The coroner must hold an inquest, or inquiry, over the body of anyone who dies in a suspicious or mysterious way, in order to find out the cause of death; he is assisted by a jury, usually of six men; the findings of the inquest are turned over to the prosecuting attorney or to a local judge. The sheriff sees that the law is obeyed. He is assisted in large counties by a number of deputies and may swear in special deputies in an emergency; if a serious riot occurs, he may call to his help all able-bodied men of the county. He arrests criminals, carries out orders of the county court, has charge of all prisoners, is the keeper of the county jail, and, in some states, executes convicted criminals. The district attorney, or state's attorney, gives legal advice to other county officers; he also represents the county in lawsuits and prosecutes lawbreakers. With few exceptions county officers are elected by the people and serve for terms varying from one to four years.

Law enforcement by city officials. Most cities are governed by a council and mayor, both having a part in the making of city laws, or ordinances, and in the appointment of officers to execute them. The mayor, who has the chief responsibility in seeing that ordinances are obeyed, appoints the heads of departments and many other city officials, subject usually to the approval of the council. The treasurer, who serves as keeper of the funds, and the clerk, who is the custodian of records and ordinances, are usually elected by the voters.

The work of the city is carried on largely by departments, the most important of which are the departments of health, public works, police, fire, finance, and education (often called the school board). The activities of city departments have been described in earlier chapters.

Law enforcement by state officers. Main responsibility for the enforcement of law in the state rests on the governor. If public order is seriously endangered, he may call out the militia or he may even ask the president of the United States for military assistance. In most states the governor is aided in his work by boards and commissions and by such officers as the lieutenant governor, secretary of state, attorney-general, treasurer, auditor, and superintendent of public instruction.

With the exception of the lieutenant governor, the work of state executive officials is for the most part administrative. The lieutenant governor usually presides over the senate; if the governor dies, resigns, or is removed from office, the lieutenant governor takes his place. The secretary of state publishes the laws, safeguards important state papers, and countersigns the commissions and proclamations of the governor. The treasurer takes care of the money of the state, receives state taxes, and pays state bills. The auditor examines the financial accounts of state officers and institutions and usually must approve bills before they can be paid by the treasurer. The attorney-general gives legal advice to state officials and represents the state in lawsuits in which it is concerned. The superintendent of public instruction has general oversight of the schools of the state.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name one business activity of your local or state government; one police activity.

2. To what official should you go to get a birth certificate? a marriage license? an automobile license? a dog license?

3. How does the coroner help to maintain law and order?

4. Has your county any officers not mentioned in this section? If so, what do they do?

5. Tell what it means to record a deed or a mortgage. Why is such an act necessary?

Section III. Enforcing National Law

National administrative work. Much national legislation deals with public enterprises, such as the control and distribution of public lands, the construction of public works, the collection and expenditure of taxes, the management of the postal service, and the conduct of foreign relations. Enforcement of national law is, therefore, largely business-like in character.

The president and his assistants. The president is responsible for the execution of all national laws. As we have seen, he is aided, first of all, by the members of his cabinet, each of whom is in charge of one of the ten executive departments. The department heads are appointed by the president (subject to approval by the Senate), are removable by him, and are responsible to him alone. The president is aided also by boards and commissions not included in the executive departments. Examples of such establishments are the Civil Service Commission, the Interstate Commerce Commission, the Federal Reserve Board, and the Smithsonian Institution. The latter establishment, in addition to aiding all sorts of scientific research, controls the National Museum, the National Gallery of Art, and the National Zoölogical Park. Finally, the president is helped by thousands of employees who occupy minor positions in the government and who perform most of the detailed work that is required.

The most important activities in carrying out national laws take place in the ten great executive departments. Each department is divided into bureaus, and each bureau, as a rule, into divisions. Many bureaus and divisions require the services of hundreds and even thousands of men and women. The postal service alone employs more than three hundred thousand persons.

The civil service. Until fifty years ago government positions were usually given to those who by their work had

helped the victorious party win the election; little or no attention was paid to the fitness of an individual for the office he desired. But in 1883 Congress established the Civil Service Commission and authorized the president to place certain government positions in a classified list to be filled by persons who had proved their fitness. At first only a few thousand offices were put under the civil-service rulings, but successive presidents have added to the list until at present more than three fourths of all government positions are in the classified service. Many of the unclassified offices of today consist of the higher positions, in which agreement with the party in power seems desirable in order to carry out the will of the people as it is expressed at election.

SORTING THE MAIL

The postal service is one of the most important administrative activities of the government. In this office the clerks are sorting newspapers and magazines. You can see what good shots they must be to toss periodicals into the higher cubby-holes.

All classified positions must be filled from the list of persons who have passed the examinations given by the Civil Service Commission. Once in office an appointee cannot be discharged except for cause shown in a public hearing. Sweeping removals, such as were customary under the old spoils system, are now impossible. Efficient work is secured by making all minor employees responsible to the chief of the division in which they are employed; he, in turn, is responsible to one of the assistant secretaries of

THE WHITE HOUSE

the department or to the secretary himself. Finally, the secretary is responsible to the president, who can therefore readily fix responsibility in case anything goes wrong in the government service.

The national executive departments. The chief executive work of the nation, as stated above, is done by ten great departments. The Department of State keeps the original

THE PRESIDENT AND HIS CABINET © Harris-Ewing

The meetings of the cabinet are informal. No minutes are kept, and as a rule no vote is taken. While the president usually consults the members on important public questions and policies, he is under no obligation to follow their advice.

copies of laws, treaties, and proclamations, communicates with the state governments on all official matters, and has charge of foreign affairs. The Department of the Treasury collects public revenues, pays government bills, supervises the printing and coining of money, oversees the national banks, and directs the erection of public buildings. The Department of War has charge of military affairs. The Department of Justice prosecutes violators of national law, advises Federal officers on legal matters, and represents the

government in all suits in which it is a party. The Post Office Department has charge of the postal service. The Department of the Navy supervises the navy. The Department of the Interior manages the public lands, patents, pensions, and the Indians. The Department of Agriculture serves the farmers of the country through investigations and experiments. The Department of Commerce takes the census, inspects steamboats, and maintains lighthouses. The Department of Labor enforces immigration and naturalization laws, investigates child labor, and publishes information on wages and working conditions in various industries.

Maintenance of law and order. Violators of national law are brought to justice by agents of the secret service (a division of the Department of the Treasury) or by Federal marshals who serve in the Department of Justice. If the president finds that resistance to law is too strong for ordinary modes of enforcement, he may use the regular army and the navy or he may call out the state militia. If need arises, he may indeed employ all the resources of the nation to maintain order.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Find the clause in the Constitution which authorizes the president to call out the state militia to enforce national law (see page 725).

2. Name two advantages in having government positions placed under civil-service regulations. Why should the most important offices be exceptions? Would it be desirable to have all positions not filled by election placed under civil-service rules? Give reasons for your answer.

3. Divide the national executive departments into two groups: first, those that exist chiefly to serve governmental needs; second, those that exist chiefly to serve the people.

4. Name the present members of the cabinet. What was the occupation of each man before he entered the cabinet? Does his previous experience seem to have fitted him for his present position?

5. *Research topics for volunteers:*
   a. Work of the Department of State.
   b. Activities of the Department of the Treasury.
   c. Duties of the Department of Labor.

Section IV. Problems in Enforcing Law

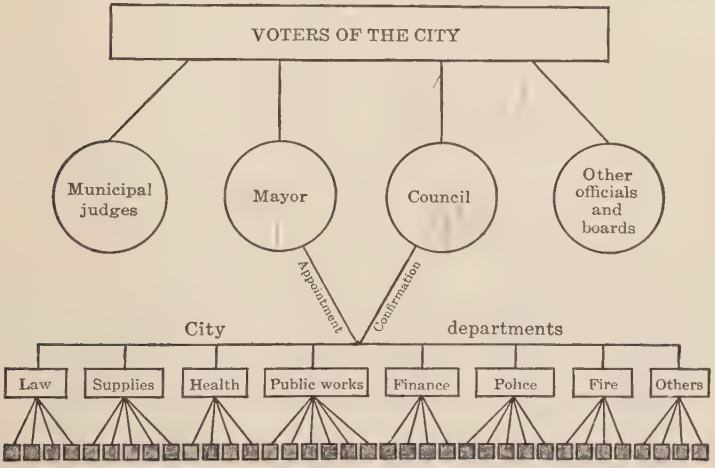
Problem of securing able and honest officials. The greatest problem in law enforcement is the securing of honest, capable, fearless officials. Many executives are just such men, but occasionally we have officers who are afraid to enforce the law against powerful and influential law-breakers. At times we have also dishonest officials who use their positions to make money for themselves and their friends through government contracts, or who even accept a share in the evil gains of criminals as the price of overlooking violations of the law. First of all, our problem, then, is to secure courageous and conscientious officers:

> Men whom the lust of office does not kill;
> Men whom the spoils of office cannot buy;
> Men who possess opinions and a will;
> Men who have honor; men who will not lie.

Problem of establishing responsibility in local governments. Many people have become dissatisfied with mayor-council government, because they believe that such government is wasteful and gives poor service. When something goes wrong in a city governed by a mayor and council, an ordinary citizen frequently cannot discover who is at fault or is helpless when he finds out. If, for example, garbage is collected only at intervals of two weeks, a citizen may complain about the poor service at the department of public works only to be told that the mayor has ordered that collections be made every two weeks. On visiting the mayor's office the citizen may be informed that the mayor agrees that collections should be made more frequently, but that the

council did not vote enough money to meet the cost of more frequent collections. A private citizen does not have time to call on twenty-five or fifty aldermen to urge action, and even if he did have time his visits would probably do no good.

Thus, because of the division of powers in mayor-council government, it is hard for people to find out who is responsible if conditions are bad. The mayor may prevent the

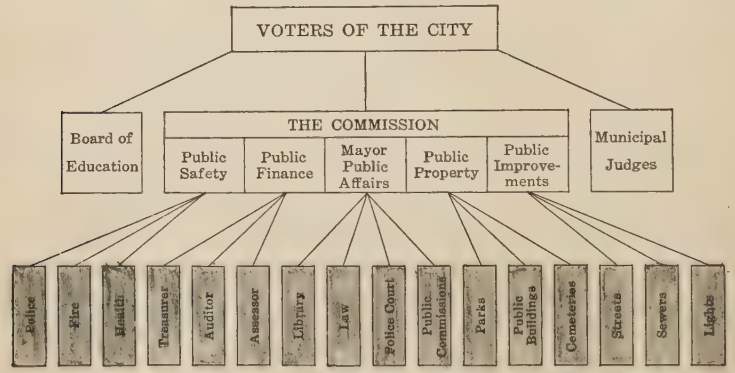


MAYOR AND COUNCIL GOVERNMENT

In this diagram only the most important officials, departments, and bureaus are shown. How does the organization of the government of your community differ from the plan given above?

council from remedying conditions by vetoing its measures, by failing to carry them out, or by enforcing them in a half-hearted way; the council likewise may fail to adopt the mayor's recommendations or may refuse to approve his appointments to office. This situation is possible largely because the power to make the laws and the power to enforce them are separate and independent. As a result, the wishes of the people are not fulfilled, the city suffers, and the community can do little or nothing to remedy conditions.

Commission government. Such was the situation in almost all our cities when, in 1900, a terrific hurricane and tidal wave swept over Galveston, Texas, destroying a large part of the city and killing thousands of the inhabitants. In the crisis that followed, the mayor and council proved so helpless that a few able, energetic men, convinced that the existing government could not handle the situation, persuaded the state legislature to grant the city a new charter,



COMMISSION GOVERNMENT, DES MOINES, IOWA

Only the most important officials and agencies of the city are shown in this diagram. How is the organization of commission government simpler than the mayor-council plan?

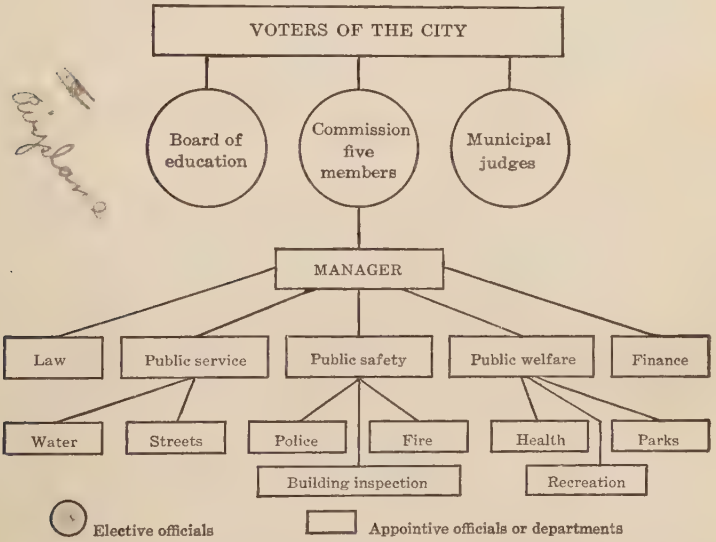
placing the entire government in the hands of five men, to be elected by the voters.[1] Council, mayor, and all other elective officers were done away with, and the commission, as the five men were called, took complete charge of making and enforcing the laws of the city. They quickly brought order out of confusion.

In commission government the law-making body and the law-enforcing body are one. Hence there is no difficulty in telling who is responsible for the kind of government the city has. So successful did the plan prove in Galveston that

[1] During the first two years three of the commissioners were appointed by the governor.

it has been adopted, sometimes with changes in details, in hundreds of cities in other states as well as in Texas.

The city-manager plan. A second remedy for the defects of mayor-council government is the city-manager, or council-manager, plan, first tried in a large way in Dayton, Ohio. Convinced of the inability of the mayor and council



CITY-MANAGER GOVERNMENT, DAYTON, OHIO

Mention two important ways in which the city-manager plan differs from the commission plan of city government.

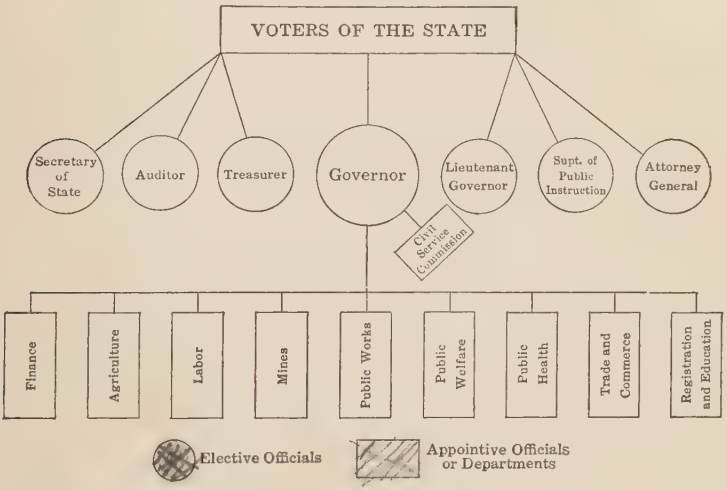
to rebuild the city after a destructive flood, the citizens of Dayton decided to adopt the city-manager plan. This form of government has as its basis a commission of five members, but it places the power to carry out the laws in the hands of one person, known as the manager. Under the plan a city is looked upon as a business corporation, with the citizens as stockholders, the commission they elect as the board of directors, and the manager (appointed by the commission) as the superintendent, or general manager.

As a rule the commission levies taxes, appropriates money, passes ordinances, appoints a civil-service board, and selects the manager. The manager enforces the city ordinances, advises the commission on needs of the community, appoints city employees (usually from the list of those who have met the requirements of the civil-service board) and dismisses them if he thinks best. The manager may be removed at any time by the commission or by the voters. So well has the new plan worked that almost three hundred communities have adopted it, including such cities as Cincinnati, Cleveland, Pasadena, Kansas City, Rochester, and Indianapolis.

The chief advantages claimed for city-manager government are efficiency and the fixing of responsibility. The manager is an expert in municipal affairs. Since he need not be a resident of the city which employs him, he is appointed usually because of his record, not on account of his politics. His large powers enable him to give the city good government; at the same time they make it possible for everyone to know who is at fault in case of bad government. If the city's affairs are handled badly, the commission can remove the manager; if the commission does not remove a poor manager or support a good one, the people may, by means of the recall, vote to remove the commission, the manager, or both.

Opponents of the manager plan maintain that a city is not a business concern; that ability in managing business affairs is not the only end in municipal government; that a city should be a school to train political leaders; and that both the manager plan and commission government enable wealthy men and powerful business interests to control the city for their own benefit. Thoughtful people will differ as to whether the friends or the foes of commission and city-manager government have the better of the argument, but all will agree that both methods must have a longer trial before their real merits or faults are proved.

Problem of establishing responsibility in state governments. The difficulty of fixing responsibility in the mayor-council form of city government is equaled by similar difficulty in many state governments. The governor, although the chief executive officer of the state, usually has little or no authority over many of the other executive officers. Like



THE ILLINOIS ADMINISTRATIVE PLAN

As ordinarily organized state administrative officers, while subject in theory to the governor's orders, are in practice independent of his authority. In the Illinois plan, however, many of them are appointed and removed by him, and the governor is therefore responsible in large part for the management of the affairs of the state. Draw a diagram showing the organization of your state government.

him, they are elected by the voters and, if they wish, can ignore his suggestions or commands. Under such circumstances citizens cannot fix responsibility, and the public welfare suffers accordingly.

Illinois has been a pioneer in improving the situation. A few years ago the legislature passed an act grouping more than one hundred and twenty-five separate state agencies in nine departments and providing that the head of each department be appointed by the governor. As a body the

department heads form a cabinet to inform and advise the governor concerning the needs of the state. Since each man has power over everything in his department and is responsible to the governor and to him alone for the conduct of its business, responsibility for all activities in the department rests squarely on his shoulders.

Following the example of Illinois, several states have adopted cabinet government. Although the plan has not remedied all defects in state government, it has lessened many of them. But here, too, as in all other devices, machinery alone cannot bring good government. That result can be obtained only by the patient, watchful, and intelligent effort of all good citizens.

Summary. We need law enforcement in order that fair play may be maintained and that the will of the people as expressed in law may be carried out. In enforcing law two kinds of activities are required: first, work of a business nature; and secondly, police work. Since most of our local, state, and national legislation concerns public undertakings, the execution of law is in large measure administrative in character; but the enforcement of law against lawbreakers is also of great importance and presents serious problems. The chief problems in law enforcement are, first, the securing of able, honest, and courageous officials, and, secondly, the establishment of responsibility and efficiency in our local and state executive departments. Changes in governmental machinery often aid in the solution of such problems, but no device, however excellent, can take the place of wide-awake intelligent public opinion.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. If a city has mayor-council government, which seems the better, a large council or a small one? Why? Which seems the better, a council of one chamber or two chambers? Give reasons.

2. If you live in a city, tell whether you have the mayor-council, commission, or city-manager type of government. Mention one advantage and one disadvantage in each type.

3. Explain the chief difference between commission government and city-manager government; the chief likeness.

4. Explain clearly what "fixing responsibility" means. Give an illustration from your school or from some club to which you belong. Why is it important to fix responsibility in government?

5. Is it difficult to fix responsibility in the national government? in county government? Explain.

THINGS TO DO

1. Copy the following table and fill in each column:

How Government Serves Me

Local Government	State Government	National Government

2. Bring to class (1) two newspaper clippings illustrating law enforcement by the police; (2) two newspaper clippings illustrating law enforcement of an administrative character.

3. Choose a member of the class to write to the Commissioner of Public Land, Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C., and find what public land can be secured as a homestead, the terms on which it can be obtained, the character of the soil and the climate in the region, and the steps necessary to secure title.

4. Make a table giving the names of your most important local, state, and national executive officers.

5. Choose teams of three each to debate the following question: *Resolved*, That members of the president's cabinet should be allowed to speak, but not vote, in Congress.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. * "The Administrator," by J. H. Sears, *America's Message*, 206–217.
2. "Colonial Administration," by W. H. Taft, *In Our Times*, 259–263.
3. "The United States Department of Agriculture," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 385–405.
4. "Revealing Weather Secrets," *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, 28–41.
5. * "Getting the Land to the People," *ibid.*, 128–142.
6. "Combing the World for New Crops," *ibid.*, 155–168.
7. * "Producing Census Facts," *ibid.*, 188–201.
8. "Theodore Roosevelt, President of the United States," *Modern Great Americans*, 204–219.
9. "Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States," *ibid.*, 261–274.
10. * "The President," *The American Government*, 51–66.
11. " The Department of the Interior," *ibid.*, 179–192.
12. * "The Government Printing Office," *ibid.*, 355–362.
13. "Enforcing Law," *Readings in Community Life*, Part III, section 3.

II. Home Readings

1. *The Story of our Navy*, by Willis J. Abbott. Dodd.
2. *American Presidents*, by Thomas F. Moran. Crowell.
3. *Letters of a Woman Homesteader*, by Elinor P. R. Stewart. Houghton.
4. * *Uncle Sam, Wonder-Worker*, by William A. DuPuy. Stokes.
5. *Uncle Sam, Fighter*, by William A. DuPuy. Stokes.
6. * *Boys' Life of Theodore Roosevelt*, by Hermann Hagedorn. Harper.
7. *Naval Heroes of Today*, by Francis A. Collins. Century.
8. *Coniston*, by Winston Churchill. Macmillan.
9. * *Mr. Crewe's Career*, by Winston Churchill. Macmillan.
10. * *Uncle Sam's Secrets*, by Oscar P. Austin. Appleton.

CHAPTER XV

APPLYING LAW

The most sacred of the duties of a government is to do equal and exact justice to all its citizens. — THOMAS JEFFERSON

SECTION I. WHY WE NEED COURTS

Establishing justice. The goddess of justice is usually pictured as blindfolded, holding a pair of evenly balanced scales in one hand, a drawn sword in the other. The bandaged eyes are intended to represent freedom from outside influence, the scales stand for fairness, the sword typifies condemnation of the guilty and protection of the innocent.

The picture is a true portrayal of courts at their best. When so established, courts are free from the influence of rich or poor, high or low; they receive and weigh evidence without fear or favor; in their decrees they punish the guilty and defend the innocent. We need courts first of all to give to every man equal and exact justice.

Finding out the truth. The second reason we need courts is to find out the facts in a case. When a person is accused of breaking the law, it is necessary to learn at the outset whether he did what he is charged with doing. Many an individual has been wrongly accused. To punish a person for something that he did not do would be in itself a crime.

Jones, for example, may be accused of murdering Harris. But is Harris dead? If dead, was his life taken by Jones? If so, how and for what reasons? What are the facts? To know whether Jones is guilty of murder, one must first discover whether he killed Harris and, if so, why and under what circumstances. Courts exist to find out the truth.

Discovering law violations. We also have courts to decide when the law has been broken. The taking of human life, for example, does not necessarily violate law. If Jones was insane when he killed Harris, he committed no crime; for the law does not regard an insane person as capable of violating law, since it does not consider him responsible for what he does. Or if Jones killed Harris by accident, the law would not regard him as a lawbreaker; for the law does not consider the result of an accident as a crime unless, indeed, the accident was owing to criminal neglect or carelessness. Or if Jones is a police officer who took the life of Harris as the only way in which to prevent Harris from murdering someone else, Jones would be held guiltless; for the law would view his deed as an act of duty and hence justified. We need courts to determine whether deeds under investigation are violations of law.

Interpreting law. Courts are needed, in the last place, to interpret law. Whether a law has been broken depends, of course, on its meaning. Just what a law means and whether it applies or was intended to apply to a particular case is often hard to determine. The language of a statute is sometimes obscure, and may be interpreted in a number of ways. Naturally, the manner in which a statute is interpreted decides its bearing upon a controversy. Questions may arise also as to whether a law agrees with the Constitution; if so, the law is binding; if not, it is null, void, and of no force. Courts are needed to decide both the meaning and the constitutionality of laws.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. A modern artist has pictured justice with eyes wide open. Do you like his portrayal better than that described in the text? Give reasons.

2. Explain four reasons for courts, giving, if possible, original illustrations of each reason.

3. What is justice? Write an answer in your own words. Tell about an experience in which one of your friends was treated unjustly. Be able to give your reasons for thinking he had unjust treatment.

4. Point out the paragraph which illustrates the difference between constitutional law and statute law.

5. Read the Preamble to the Constitution of the United States (p. 717). Which part relates to this chapter?

Section II. Trying Cases at Law

Two kinds of law cases. Laws fall into two classes, public law and private law. Public law deals with the management of government business, the duties of state officers, and the relations between individuals and society. Private law deals with relations between individuals.

Violations of public law, that is, offenses against society, are crimes. Such acts are punishable by fine, imprisonment, or death; cases of this sort are called criminal cases. Violations of private law are civil injuries. Such acts are punishable by an award of damages to be paid by the wrongdoer to the injured person; cases of this kind are called civil cases.

Civil and criminal cases. An illustration will show the difference between a civil case and a criminal case. If Smith buys an automobile and fails to pay for it, he wrongs Wilson, the dealer, and is responsible for a civil injury. But regrettable as Smith's act is, it does not greatly affect the community; the injury is chiefly to Wilson, who may recover damages for the wrong by taking action in accordance with private law.

But if Smith steals Wilson's car, he commits a crime, for his deed is a violation of peace and order and is therefore an offense against society. True, Wilson also is harmed by Smith's act, but the injury to the community is more

serious than the injury to the individual. For this reason an accusation in a criminal case is always brought in the name of the people of the state, not in the name of an individual. In the instance supposed, Wilson may also bring suit against Smith to recover the value of the stolen automobile.

The person who is wronged in a civil injury may make a settlement with the offender without taking the matter to court. In case of crime, too, the victim may accept payment for the injuries he has suffered, but he cannot make a lawful agreement to enter no complaint; for a crime is an offense against the state, and only the courts can deal with it.

Declaration, or complaint. When a criminal case arises from a petty offense or when a civil suit involves only a small sum of money (not more than $300), the case is tried before the lowest court in the state: in townships or villages, before a justice of the peace; in cities, before a police magistrate. If a crime is serious or if a civil suit involves a large sum (more than $300), the case usually comes before a county court or a municipal court. Occasionally the plaintiff, the person who brings suit, may bring the case before the lowest court or the court next in rank, as he prefers.

The first step in a civil case or in a criminal case is the filing of a declaration, or complaint. In a civil suit the plaintiff must appear before the court and file a statement of the facts which form the basis for his action. In a criminal case the plaintiff is the state, and the complaint always names the crime that has been committed and states the time and place in which the deed is said to have been done. The accusation as a rule is in the form of an indictment, or a presentment, a document coming usually from the prosecuting attorney and approved by the grand jury.

Summons or warrant. The next step in a case at law is the issuing of a summons or warrant. A summons, which is

used in a civil suit, is a written order signed by a judge, directing a constable, or police officer, to summon the defendant to appear in court at a given time and place to answer the suit of the plaintiff. The duty of the officer is completed upon serving the summons. In a civil suit a defendant may as a rule disregard a summons, but if he does disregard it the court will decide the case against him.

A warrant, which ordinarily is used only in criminal cases, is a written order from the court commanding a police officer to bring the person named in the warrant into court to answer the charge made against him. The officer's duty is then to find and arrest the accused. A person engaged in the commission of a criminal act may, of course, be arrested on the spot without a warrant. If the crime is a serious offense like murder and the evidence of guilt is strong, the prisoner is usually kept in confinement until the time set for a hearing of the case; otherwise he is released on bail.

SERVING A SUMMONS

A complaint has been filed against this man and the officer is serving him with a summons to appear in court.

Preliminary hearings. When the day comes for the hearing the accused appears before the court, listens to the reading of the indictment, and answers the judge's query, "Are you guilty or not guilty?" If the prisoner's reply is "Guilty," the judge pronounces sentence, sometimes at once, sometimes later. If the prisoner remains silent or answers, "Not guilty," the judge directs that a plea of not guilty be recorded and names a date for the trial. There is usually

no step in a civil suit that corresponds to the preliminary hearing in a criminal case.

Selecting the jury. On the day set for trial the plaintiff, defendant, attorneys, and witnesses appear in court. In a criminal case the district attorney, state's attorney, or public prosecutor (different titles are used in different states) serves as counsel for the state. The defendant employs his own lawyer; if he is unable to do so, the judge usually appoints an attorney as his counsel. In civil suits the parties to the case engage their own lawyers. In rare instances an individual may serve as his own attorney.

Either the plaintiff or the defendant may demand a trial by jury in a civil suit, but the side which asks for a jury must usually advance the funds to meet the expense involved. In a serious criminal case trial by jury is required by constitutional law, unless the accused enters a plea of guilty. In most states a jury is composed of twelve persons who are voters, able to speak English, and of good reputation. Members of a jury are selected after examination in court. The lawyers for each side question the veniremen, as prospective jurors are called, and occasionally challenge and reject those to whom they object. Anyone who seems to be unable to give a fair verdict because of prejudice, fixed opinions, or personal interest in the outcome, is excluded.

The trial. After the complaint, or indictment, has been read and the defense has entered its answer to the suit or its denial to the charge, the jury (in case one is needed) is chosen and sworn to decide the case fairly. The lawyer for the plaintiff then tells the court what he intends to prove and places the witnesses for the prosecution, as the plaintiff's side is called, upon the witness stand to give their testimony. Each witness is first sworn to tell the truth; then, guided by the questions of the plaintiff's attorney, the witness tells what he knows about the case. After each witness finishes his direct testimony, he is questioned, or cross-examined, by the lawyer for the defense. The latter

tries to get the witness to contradict himself, to reveal facts on which he was silent, and by his replies to discredit or throw doubt upon his earlier testimony. After the examination of witnesses for the prosecution, witnesses for the defense are called to the stand and examined in like manner.

When the evidence is all in, the attorneys for both sides address the jury, each seeking to justify his client. The

A COURT SCENE

The two judges who served on this case are sitting against the wall on the right. Directly in front of their bench is the court stenographer. In the circle facing the camera are the defendants and their attorneys. Just behind them, writing at the desks, are a number of newspaper reporters. In the center one of the lawyers is cross-examining the witness, seated at the right, concerning the lines in the enlarged fingerprint.

judge then gives his charge to the jury, explaining the law that governs the case and instructing the jurors concerning the kind of decision, or verdict, they may return. The jury now retire in charge of the bailiff to a room where, shut off from outsiders, they discuss the evidence and draw up a verdict.

Verdict and judgment. Most states do not require a unanimous verdict in civil cases. In criminal cases, however, members of a jury must agree; if they disagree, a

mistrial results, and a new trial with a new jury must be held unless the prosecution recommends that the case be dropped and the prisoner set free. Such action is likely to be taken if the offense with which the accused is charged is not serious or if the case has been tried a number of times without decision.

TRAFFIC VIOLATORS

When a motorist violates a traffic ordinance in Los Angeles, California, the arresting officer gives him a ticket on which is written a description of the offense and the amount of the fine. Within thirty-six hours the offender appears at the traffic bureau and pays the fine. If he wishes to fight the case, he may ask for a trial, but otherwise there is no court procedure. The plan saves time for both the court and the motorist.

When the jury agree on a verdict they notify the judge and report their decision in open court. If they have obeyed his instructions, their verdict ends the case (unless an appeal to a higher court is entered), and the court proceeds to pronounce sentence or give judgment. If the jury have disobeyed his instructions, the judge may set aside the verdict, dismiss the jurors, and order a new trial.

In pronouncing sentence upon a person the judge orders the prisoner to stand, asks him if he knows any reason why sentence should not be pronounced upon him, and after he has replied tells him what his punishment is to be. In a civil case the court gives judgment in favor of the winning side, embodying in his decree the damages which the jury awards and announcing the decision as made by the jury. Both sentence and judgment are always in writing and are entered upon the permanent docket, or record, of the court.

Execution. If the accused is found not guilty, he is immediately set free and can never be tried again for the same offense; if convicted, the sentence is carried out by the official appointed by law for that duty, — the constable, sheriff, marshal, or warden of the penitentiary.

Judgment in a civil suit is usually enforced by the constable or sheriff. If the damages assessed by the court are not paid by the loser within the time allowed by law, the constable or sheriff, acting under court order, seizes property of the defendant, sells it, and turns the money over to the judge. The latter, after paying the victor and deducting court costs, returns the balance to the loser.

Appealing a decision. Judges and juries are officers of the law and are under its restrictions in the same way as all other public servants. They can do only what the law provides. Their proceedings are all under legal regulations.

Naturally in the course of a trial, as we noticed in the first section, problems arise on many points of law. Shall a witness be allowed to answer certain questions? Shall certain lines of evidence be admitted? What does a certain clause in the statute mean? Is the statute in agreement with the Constitution? Such questions come up repeatedly and as a rule must be answered before the trial can proceed.

In most states the judge is the only person authorized to settle points of law. Indeed this is usually his chief work, while that of the jury is to determine the facts in a case.[1] Such provisions are wise, for judges are usually experienced lawyers, whereas juries are generally made up of people from all walks of life with little or no legal training.

But judges are human beings and, like other people, occasionally make mistakes. To prevent the injustice that might arise from a wrong decision, therefore, the law provides that an appeal on points of law may be made to a higher court. Whenever the judge rules on a point of law,

[1] In some states the jury decides both questions of fact and points of law. Such, for example, is the practice in Illinois.

the attorney whose client suffers from the decision may "enter an exception." When the trial is ended, "the exceptions" form the basis of the appeal.

In a civil suit either side may appeal to a higher court. In a criminal case, however, only the defense may appeal from the decision of the trial court; for the Constitution

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THE SUPREME COURT

The chief justice and his eight associates form the most dignified, authoritative judicial body in the world. From their decisions there is no appeal.

provides that no one may be put in jeopardy, or danger, twice for the same offense. When an appeal is granted, the case is heard in the higher court only on points of law. Sometimes the decision of the lower court is affirmed, or approved; sometimes it is changed; occasionally it is set aside entirely and a new trial ordered. If a new trial is necessary, the case is returned to the lower court for retrial.

Appeals may be made in most states from county or municipal courts to circuit or district courts. As a rule the

dissatisfied party may further appeal the case to the state supreme court or the court of appeals, if he cares to go to the expense. All suits involving only the laws or constitution of the state are decided finally by the highest state court. Cases which involve the national Constitution or the national laws may be appealed from the state courts to the Federal courts. In such instances the Supreme Court of the United States usually gives the final decision. From its decree there is no appeal.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. In what three lawful ways can a change be brought about in a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States? One method is described in Article V of the Constitution (p. 728). Can you find the other two ways?

2. Point out three differences between a civil case and a criminal case.

3. Re-read the section, listing in order in two columns (one headed "civil case," and the other "criminal case") the steps ordinarily followed in civil and in criminal cases.

4. What is usually the chief work of a judge? of a jury?

5. Tell why a jury is necessary in some trials and not in others. How are jurors obtained? Find out why they are called jurors (use the dictionary). Do women serve as jurors in your state? Find the main differences between a grand jury and a trial jury.

SECTION III. PROBLEMS IN ESTABLISHING JUSTICE

Need for good judges. Good judges are honest, impartial, fearless, and learned in the law. When in the court room they are above the influence of parties, friends, or enemies. They do not deny, delay, or sell justice to any man or group of men. As a great English jurist said, they give only such decisions as become a judge.

Such judges are not easy to secure. In most states judges are chosen by popular election. Often indebted for their

positions to a party boss or a political ring, and eager for reëlection at the end of their terms, judges do not hesitate at times to favor friends and supporters or to rule against enemies and opponents in cases brought before them for decision.

Thoughtful people believe that such conditions can be remedied in large part by the election of judges without regard to party politics and with consideration only to the qualities of the candidates. In many communities local organizations of lawyers aid voters by recommending the candidates whose experience and character fit them for service on the bench. In the end, of course, responsibility for good judges depends chiefly upon the public, for the public selects them. Federal judges, it will be recalled, are appointed by the president, subject to the approval of the Senate.

Improvement in court procedure. Our court practices and our laws alike are based on the belief that it is better for ninety-nine guilty persons to escape than for one innocent person to suffer. An accused person is regarded as innocent, therefore, until he is proved guilty. To safeguard his interests, the law lays down minute details concerning the selection of juries, the drawing up of legal papers, the admission of testimony, and the making of appeals.

Such details, although excellent in purpose, make it easy for unscrupulous lawyers to find legal loopholes that enable guilty men to escape the punishment they deserve. The technicalities that arise from such provisions also cause long, wearisome delays and, instead of promoting justice, often result in injustice.

Examples of the need of improvements in court practices can be found in all parts of the country. In one state more than three months were used in selecting a jury. In another state almost ten thousand persons were examined before a jury was secured. In New York a civil suit was in the courts for over twenty years, seven trials being held before

a final decision was reached. Cases are on record in which appeals have been granted because of a misspelled word in an indictment, a slight error in a name or date, or even the use of a small letter where a capital should have been employed.

Most defects in court procedure are due to the laws rather than to the judges. As pointed out before, the duty of a judge is to administer the law; legally, he can do nothing else. If the law provides that an indictment must be drawn and signed in a certain manner to be legal or that an appeal must be granted if any mistake appears in the court records, the judge has no choice in the matter; he must act as the law prescribes.

Many court practices can be changed, therefore, only by state legislatures. This fact is being widely recognized, and improved legislation is appearing in all parts of the country. Half the states now have laws providing that a decision by a lower court shall not be rejected because an error has been made in the proceedings, unless the error affects the merits of the suit or the constitutional rights of one of the parties to the case. In the opinion of experts we also need laws limiting the right of appeal and permitting judges to rule out technical quibbles, to confine attorneys to questions and arguments of importance, and to give juries instructions on the facts as well as on the law in a case.

Reduction in court costs. In theory all persons are equal before the law; in practice wide inequalities exist. A laborer who sues a wealthy employer or a large corporation for injuries suffered while at work is usually at a great disadvantage. He may be unable to employ an attorney or even to advance the fees required by the court. The defendant, however, can engage the ablest lawyers, can secure repeated postponements of the case, and by appeal after appeal can tire out the plaintiff and often force him to drop the suit or accept an unfair settlement. In such instances a rich man wins over a poor man and injustice

triumphs. On the other hand, prejudice occasionally causes unjust verdicts against wealthy men or against powerful corporations.

Court costs and attorney fees are sometimes so great as to exceed the value of the property at stake. Recently an estate of $1,000,000 was, by the expense of extended lawsuits, reduced to $70,000. The community also suffers from court costs, the expense in securing a jury in criminal cases often running into thousands of dollars.

Laws simplifying court procedure, as suggested above, by greatly reducing such expenses would aid notably in solving the problem of securing justice for poor people. The appointment of a public defender to look after the interests of accused persons unable to employ counsel also would promote justice by lessening costs. Another remedy in operation in some places is the establishment of courts of claims to provide at slight expense for the collection of debts and small sums of money.

Avoidance of lawsuits. Prevention is better than cure. In keeping with this old maxim courts and agencies have been established in many communities to act as peace-makers and to prevent costly, long-drawn-out lawsuits. Some states have created boards and commissions to determine the awards which laborers who are injured when at work should receive. Many cities have established courts of domestic relations to settle family quarrels, reconcile parents and children, and prevent the break-up of home life. Certain states have set up courts of conciliation to hear both sides to controversies and to suggest settlements without the delay and expense of lawsuits. In such ways difficulties have been solved and legal battles avoided.

Summary. We need courts to give to all equal and exact justice, to find the facts in a controversy, to discover whether the facts constitute a violation of law, and to determine the meaning and constitutionality of law. Cases at law are of two kinds, civil and criminal. Civil

cases arise from violations of private law, concern individuals rather than society, and occur only when one person brings suit against another. Criminal cases include all social offenses that are punishable under public law. In such instances action is brought in the name of the people; for the wrong that has been committed is looked upon as an injury to society rather than to the person who may have been wronged. The latter, however, may secure damages for his injury by bringing civil suit against the offender.

Cases are first brought up in a trial court. The chief work of the judge is to deal with the legal questions that arise; the chief work of the jury is to determine points of fact and, in civil cases, to decide the amount of damages. Because of the possibility of error on legal points, the law provides that appeals may be taken to higher courts in all cases except those involving petty offenses and controversies. The higher courts act chiefly as law courts, devoting most of their time to the settlement of the legal questions brought before them. Our chief problems in establishing justice are the securing of able and honest judges, the simplifying of court procedure, the lessening of court costs, and the development of agencies to settle controversies satisfactorily without the delay and expense of suits at law.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name five qualities an ideal judge should have.

2. Why must private individuals pay the cost of civil cases and taxpayers pay the cost of criminal cases?

3. What part of the court proceedings seems to consume the most time in a case at law? Can you suggest ways of reducing the time without lessening the rights of the parties to the case?

4. Find what courts in your community would try the following cases: (1) robbery; (2) collection of a debt; (3) violation of traffic regulations; (4) breach of contract; (5) cruelty to animals; (6) truancy from school; (7) enforcement of a will.

THINGS TO DO

1. Visit a court when in session. Draw a plan of the court room, indicating the judge's bench, the jury box, the witness stand, the plaintiff, the defendant, the attorneys, and the audience. Take down a few of the important questions, answers, exceptions, and rulings for later discussion in class.

2. Stage a mock trial. Try a civil case involving a broken contract. Select a judge, jury, attorneys, witnesses, bailiff, and constable. For suggestions see McPheters, Cleaveland, and Jones's *Citizenship Dramatized* (Holt), 13–41.

3. Bring to class two newspaper clippings dealing with civil suits. Choose a committee to tabulate and report (1) the causes for the suits and (2) the courts in which the suits are brought.

4. Look through the Constitution of the United States (pp. 717–733), jotting down all clauses and articles that refer to the courts. Write out questions on the clauses that you do not understand and exchange questions for class discussion.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. * "Story of the Twelve Men in the Jury Box," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, V, 1903–1905.
2. "Applying Law," *Readings in Community Life*, Part III, section 4.
3. * "A Day in the Supreme Court," F. J. Haskin, *In Our Times*, 184–187.
4. "Justice to Justice Holmes," W. Lippman, *ibid.*, 188–190.
5. "The Department of Justice," *The American Government*, 121–130.
6. "The Supreme Court," *ibid.*, 285–296.

II. Home Readings

1. *A Day in Court*, by F. L. Wellman. Macmillan.
2. *Page Mr. Tutt*, by Arthur Train. Scribner.
3. *When Tutt Meets Tutt*, by Arthur Train. Scribner.

CHAPTER XVI

PAYING THE BILLS

The first great law passed in behalf of childhood was the law that established the right of the nation, the state, and the community to tax wealth for the benefit of all.— FRANCIS G. BLAIR

SECTION I. WHAT OUR GOVERNMENTS COST

Services of governments. Our governments serve us in countless ways. They pave our streets and highways, build our schools and most of our libraries, construct our waterworks, dig our sewer systems, and supply us with bathing beaches, playgrounds, and parks. They also make, enforce, and apply our laws. In these and many other ways they are our servants.

Expenses of government. Naturally a great deal of money is required to build schools, libraries, sidewalks, streets, and highways, to care for the insane and the feeble-minded, to inspect factories, railroads, and steamships, and to give advice to farmers and business men. The payrolls of our governments include the names of postmen, policemen, firemen, soldiers, sailors, judges, and legislators.

Expenses of local governments. The expenses of the town and county are small as compared with the city. The chief items of rural communities having township government are the schools, the building of roads and keeping them in repair, and the salaries of local officers. The chief items in the counties are schools, roads, poor relief, and the salaries of county officials. The yearly cost of county government in the United States totals about $750,000,000.

City expenses run much higher. Schools, parks and playgrounds, boulevards, water systems and sewage plants, fire-fighting equipment, and departments of health, police, and public works require the services of thousands of men and women and cost many millions of dollars. In addition, the annual interest on city debts amounts to huge sums.

PAVING A STREET

Heavy trucks, motor busses, and an ever-increasing multitude of pleasure cars cause constant wear on the city's streets. Much of the taxes goes into building and repairing the thoroughfares, and the concrete-mixer with its attendant gang of workmen is a familiar sight.

Expenses of state governments. The main expenses of our state governments are for education, roads, waterways, the courts, the militia, health, the making and enforcing of law, and the support of institutions for the care of unfortunates. In addition to helping the local governments meet the cost of the schools, most state governments maintain normal colleges for training teachers, and universities

in which anyone who is properly prepared may secure a higher education.

Expenses of the national government. Services of the national government are more extensive and costly than those of either the state or local government. A single

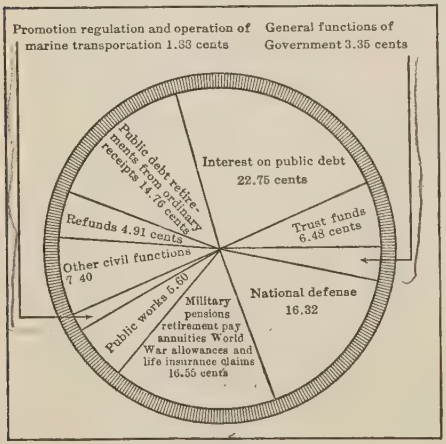
TO THE RESCUE

This rescue crew, trained at the school of the United States Bureau of Mines, is going into a mine after an explosion and fire. The men are equipped with the latest life-saving apparatus. On their backs are strapped oxygen outfits to safeguard them from smoke; the rope or life line serves to keep them from getting lost while underground; and the canary in a cage carried by the second man is used to detect gas. How does the picture illustrate taxation?

executive agency like the Department of the Interior pays out more than twice as much money as any of our state governments. This is not difficult to understand when we recall that the Department of the Interior has charge of the public domain, the geological survey, the granting of patents, the payment of pensions, the reclamation of desert

and swamp lands, the bureau of mines, and the bureau of education.

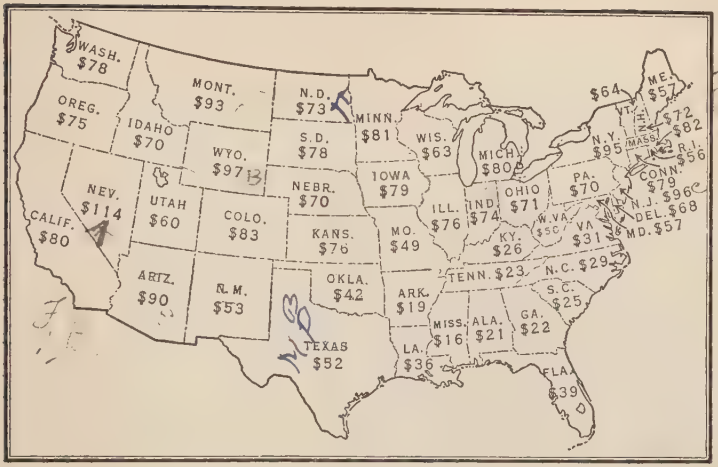
Activities of the other national departments also mount up to large sums. The army costs over $250,000,000 a year, while the annual upkeep of the navy exceeds $300,000,000. This is more than the combined expenditures of all the state governments west of the Mississippi. To build a single battleship costs more than the entire yearly expenses of such large cities as Minneapolis, Cincinnati, and Buffalo.


Promotion regulation and operation of marine transportation 1.83 cents
General functions of Government 3.35 cents
Public debt retirements from ordinary receipts 4.76 cents
Interest on public debt 22.75 cents
Refunds 4.91 cents
Trust funds 6.48 cents
Other civil functions 7.40
Public works 5.60
Military pensions retirement pay annuities World War allowances and life insurance claims 16.55 cents
National defense 16.32

THE GOVERNMENT'S EXPENSES

This chart shows how the government's income is spent. (From the *Literary Digest*, December 26, 1925.)

Chief items of expense. The chief items of governmental expense are war, defense, education, roads, public works, health, poor-relief, and interest on debt. The largest single item found in this group is the cost of war, over three fourths of all government expenditures being made to pay for conflicts, past or future. Next in amount is education, the sum spent for schools and libraries by the local, state, and national governments totaling over two billion dollars a year. The building and upkeep of ways of transportation, roads, and waterways is the third important item in the list, the sum required for this purpose amounting to almost a billion dollars yearly. Other items that loom large are the cost of protection from fire and lawlessness, running in round numbers to $300,000,000; health and sanitation, totaling $200,000,000; charities,



COST OF THE SCHOOLS

The annual expenditure for each pupil in the public schools is over sixty dollars, not including interest on loans nor the cost of new buildings and school grounds. The map shows the expenses for schools in each state. How does your state compare in expenditures for education with the other members of the Union? (By courtesy of Ralph F. Couch, Washington, D.C.)

hospitals, asylums, and prisons, reaching $200,000,000, and means of recreation, coming to almost $100,000,000. The yearly cost of all our governments totals roughly $10,000,000,000.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Give two reasons why our governments cost more today than a century ago.

2. If your local government were to reduce its expenses, which of its activities would you have it drop first? Which should you prefer to have it drop last? Give reasons for your answers.

3. Which government activity costs the most — the making of law, the enforcing of law, or the applying of law? Give proof.

4. Re-read Section II of Chapter VII (p. 145) and be prepared to tell why war costs so much.

Section II. Sources of Government Income

Four sources of income. The funds which enable our governments to serve us come from four main sources: (1) returns from government property; (2) charges for public service; (3) income from fines, gifts, and escheats; (4) taxation.

TO THE HIGHEST BIDDER

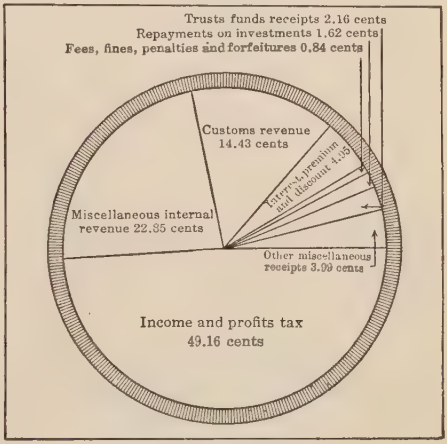
Articles seized by the customs officials are sold at auction. These men are bidding for a child's bracelet which was smuggled into the United States. The arm band, of beautiful design, is said to have been a part of the famous Russian crown jewels.

1. *Property.* The returns from government property are small. They come chiefly from the sale of public land, of unused supplies, of old ships, of buildings, and of discarded machinery and equipment.

2. *Public service.* The charges made for service amount to a larger sum. Revenue from this source in the national government comes from charges on the Alaskan Railway, tolls on the Panama Canal (amounting to more than $20,000,000 a year), and dues for letters, periodicals, and packages transported by the postal service (totaling more than $680,000,000 annually). Most of the income from services goes to meet the expenses involved; the upkeep of the Post Office, in fact, usually exceeds postal revenues.

Income from service charges in the state and local governments is more important than in the national government. Many states collect dues for the use of public wharves, bridges, canals, ferries, and warehouses,

while most city governments secure revenue from municipal waterworks, gas and electric-lighting plants, public markets, and street railways. Closely related to charges for service are special assessments for street, alley, and park improvements. In such instances the cost is divided between the government and the owners of neighboring property, the owners usually bearing half the cost because the value of their property is increased by the improvements.


Trusts funds receipts 2.16 cents
Repayments on investments 1.62 cents
Fees, fines, penalties and forfeitures 0.84 cents
Customs revenue 14.43 cents
Interest, premium and discount 4.95
Miscellaneous internal revenue 22.35 cents
Other miscellaneous receipts 3.99 cents
Income and profits tax 49.16 cents

THE GOVERNMENT'S INCOME

This chart shows the main sources of the government's income. (From the *Literary Digest*, December 26, 1925.)

3. *Fines, gifts, and escheats.* The income from fines, gifts, and escheats is irregular and uncertain. A fine is a payment which is collected as a punishment for lawbreaking. Gifts as a rule consist of libraries, museums, art galleries, schools, and universities, and of funds for the support of institutions like these. Escheats comprise the property of persons dying without heirs and without wills; in such cases the property goes to the state. Income from fines, gifts, and escheats is not large.

4. *Taxation.* The chief source of government support is taxation. A tax is a compulsory payment to the state for which a direct service or a commodity is not given in return. When you buy a postage stamp you do not pay a tax; you pay, instead, for a service in much the same way that you might pay a messenger boy to carry a message to a friend. But when your father pays his income tax he

receives no direct service or return from the government. You may do as you please about buying a stamp; he has no choice in making his payment. You buy because you wish a service done; he must pay regardless of his wants or desires. Your act is a purchase; his is the payment of a tax.

But the fact that taxpayers receive no direct service in return for the payment of taxes should not cause us to forget that in reality they receive benefits from taxation too great to measure. Francis G. Blair says:

> I pay my tax and lights swing along the street and darkness and danger disappear. I pay my tax and good roads are laid down over which I go to visit my neighbors or transact my business. I pay my tax and parks are opened. I pay my tax and libraries are built wherein children may meet the great and greatness of the past on easy, accessible terms. I pay my tax and school grounds and playgrounds are purchased, school buildings and gymnasiums are erected, courses of study projected, teachers employed; up to which come the millions of children to have their hearts and minds touched into greater light and greater power.

Principles in taxation. Many years ago a noted Scotchman named Adam Smith laid down four principles generally accepted today as desirable in all taxation. He said:

> (1) The subjects of every state ought to contribute towards the support of the government, as nearly as possible, in proportion to their respective abilities. . . . (2) The tax which each individual is bound to pay ought to be certain, and not arbitrary. . . . (3) Every tax ought to be levied at the time, or in the manner in which it is most likely to be convenient for the contributor to pay it. . . . (4) Every tax ought to be so contrived as both to take out and to keep out of the pockets of the people as little as possible over and above what it brings into the public treasury of the state.

Smith's principles of taxation may be summed up in four words: (1) ability, (2) certainty, (3) convenience, (4) economy. The first presents serious difficulties and will be discussed below at some length. The last three are

so apparent that only a few words of explanation will be needed to make them clear.

By "certainty" Smith meant that taxes should be regulated by law, that payments should be made at regular intervals, that the method of collection should be easily understood, and that the amount to be paid should be clear to all. By "convenience" he meant that taxes ought to be collected at whatever time and place and by whatever methods are most convenient to taxpayers. By "economy" he meant that taxes should be collected and expended without waste.

Justice in taxation. Adam Smith's first principle is generally looked upon as the most important single element in just taxation. Fair play, as he declared, requires that people be taxed according to their ability to pay. But his proposal, simple as it appears, can be applied only with great difficulty. For who are the able? And how can ability to pay be measured?

Three ways of measurement have been proposed: (1) consumption, (2) property, (3) income. Each deserves consideration.

1. *Consumption.* The first is the poorest of the three proposals. The quantity of goods consumed is often an indication of need instead of being a measure of ability. A man with a large family must spend a great deal more for food and clothing than a bachelor or a man with no one to support but himself and wife. To secure revenue by levying taxes on food and garments, therefore, is to use the needs of people rather than their ability as the measure of taxation.

2. *Property.* Property, or wealth, is a better measure of ability than consumption, but it, too, has serious defects. Many people with large incomes, well able to pay taxes, have little or no property. Others own property which brings them no return and occasionally is even a burden; this is the case with people who are "land poor." More-

over, property varies widely in the income which it brings the owner, some years paying nothing and other years bringing a high return. Thus, when property is taken as the means of measuring ability, many escape who ought to pay, others are taxed too little, and a third group are taxed too much.

3. *Income.* Income is generally regarded as the fairest measure for levying taxes, because an individual's ability to pay usually depends more on his income than on anything else. But here, too, difficulties arise; for persons with equal incomes are frequently very unequal in their ability.

Suppose, for example, that Brown and White receive yearly incomes of $5000 each. Out of his income Brown must support himself, his wife, and three children, his living expenses for a year amounting to $4800, — $3000 for himself and wife and $1800 for the three children. White, on the other hand, having no children, is able to meet his total living expenses with an outlay of $3000. The end of the year, therefore, finds Brown with $200 and White with $2000. Are the two men equally able to pay a tax of, say, $600?

A second difficulty arising from the use of income as a measure of tax-paying ability appears if we suppose that Brown works for his income, but that White's living comes from interest on bonds which he inherited. Under the circumstances, Brown's family depend entirely on his earnings; in case he becomes ill or dies their source of support ends; only by his savings can he provide for their future. But if anything happens to White, his widow is secure; because the income from the bonds will continue whether he is well or ill, whether he lives or dies. Clearly the two men are unequal in tax-paying ability even though their incomes are the same.

Tax provisions promoting justice. The differences in tax-paying ability that arise (1) from varying demands upon income and (2) from differences in sources of income have

led to the adoption of a number of provisions which promote fair play in taxation.

1. *Exemptions.* The first provision is the making of exemptions, or allowances, on which no tax is collected. For example, the National Revenue Act of 1926 allows an unmarried person an exemption of $1500, while a husband and wife have an exemption of $3500, with an additional $400 for each dependent.

Ewing Galloway

MIGHT AS WELL SMILE ABOUT IT

Anyone coming into the borders of the United States must go through the experience of seeing his baggage competently searched by customs officials. The inspection is necessary to prevent the importation of goods without the payment of tariff duties. Customs officers are usually courteous and efficient, and the ordeal is soon over.

2. *Progressive tax rates.* A second provision intended to promote fair play in taxing incomes is the raising of the tax rate as incomes increase in amount. The act of 1926, for example, provides a tax of 2% upon the first $4000 of income (above the amount exempted), 4% upon the second $4000, and successive increases in the rate upon higher incomes until a maximum of 35% is levied upon incomes over $1,000,000. This is called a graduated tax.

3. *Earned and unearned incomes.* A third provision often used to remedy the injustice that would result from taxing all incomes alike is a reduction in the rate for incomes that are earned (wages and salaries) as compared with incomes from investments (bonds, mortgages, and loans). The act

of 1926, for instance, provides a lower rate for earned incomes (up to $20,000) than for unearned incomes.

Direct and indirect taxation. Taxes may be either direct or indirect. A direct tax is one that the taxpayer cannot easily shift to someone else; a tax on income is an example. An indirect tax is one that can usually be passed on to another person; a tax on imported goods is an illustration. The importer pays the tax to the government, but usually adds the amount of the tax to the selling price of the goods, the tax therefore falling on the buyer.

Many of our taxes are indirect and are borne at least in part by consumers. Not only are tariff duties (taxes on imported goods) and taxes on tobacco, drugs, and playing cards usually shifted to buyers, but taxes on apartment buildings and rented farms are also generally passed on to tenants. One writer says:

> We pay taxes on our coats, on our shoes and socks, on our hats, on our shirts and underwear, on the food on the breakfast table, on the materials of which our homes are built, on the furniture in them, on the vehicles we ride in, on the amusements wherein we seek relief — on practically everything, indeed, that we have and do.

Since everyone, then, must pay taxes either directly or indirectly, it is to the interest of all that public funds be raised economically and expended wisely.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is taxation? Tell two ways in which it differs from charges for service.

2. Explain and give an example of each of the four principles of taxation laid down by Adam Smith.

3. What is justice? (Re-read page 313.) Tell how it applies to taxation. Give an illustration of an unjust tax and tell why you think it is unjust.

4. Explain this quotation: "We pay taxes on our coats."

of the legislature, or in a few cases by both the governor and the legislature. In both cities and states the budget must be passed by the lawmaking body; the latter as a rule may strike out or decrease items, but cannot increase the total amount appropriated.

The general property tax. The revenues of local and state governments come largely from the general-property tax. This is a tax upon real estate (fixed property, such as buildings and land) and upon personal property (movable property, such as furniture, tools, jewelry, money, bonds, and mortgages). The owner is generally allowed an exemption of several hundred dollars in such personal property as tools and household goods. A few states have a tax on incomes to displace or supplement the personal-property tax.

1. *Assessment.* The first step in determining the property tax an individual must pay is the making of the assessment. Local officers, called assessors, list and value all privately owned real estate, usually at intervals of from one to five years. In some states the value of personal property is stated on official blanks by the owner, who is required to swear that the report is correct. The assessor may raise the amount if he thinks the owner has put too low an estimate upon the property, and the owner in turn may appeal to a board of review, or equalization, or to a court if he thinks his property has been valued too high.

2. *Fixing the tax rate.* When the total value of property in a town, city, or county is known (by adding the individual assessments), the next step is the fixing of the tax rate. This is done by dividing the total expenditures for the coming year by the total assessment.

For example, if the expenses of Cleveland for 1930 are $60,000,000 and the total assessment is $1,500,000,000, the tax rate will be $60,000,000 divided by $1,500,000,000, or 4 per cent. Hence Mr. Black of Cleveland, whose property is assessed at $10,000, must pay the city a property tax of

$400. In addition to the city tax, he will also have to pay a general-property tax to the county and the state. The rate in each case is fixed by dividing the expenses of the division named by the total assessment in that division. Suppose the rate for the county, for example, is $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent and the rate for the state $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, or for both county and state a total of 2 per cent. In such case the 2 per cent must be added to the city rate of 4 per cent, making the total tax rate 6 per cent. Mr. Black will therefore be required to pay a property tax of $600.

The preceding illustration, however, overlooks the income the city, county, and state receive from other sources. When such revenues are subtracted from the expenditures, the total property-tax rate in the instance given will fall to 4 or 5 per cent.

3. *Collection.* The general-property tax is usually collected by local officers. In the spring or fall (in some states at both seasons) the collector sends a bill to each taxpayer notifying him of the amount of his taxes and the date of payment. If the tax is not paid when due, a penalty is added. If the tax remains unpaid after a date fixed by law, the property may be sold to settle the bill. In case of sale the owner is usually given two years in which to redeem the property by paying the original tax plus the penalty and costs.

Fees, licenses, and franchises. In addition to income from the general-property tax and from public services, local and state governments secure revenue from fees and licenses. A fee is a charge made by the government for giving the payer some special benefit, such as recording a deed or a mortgage. Licenses are of two kinds: first, business licenses permitting the receivers, under conditions determined by law, to become barbers, grocers, physicians, lawyers, and bankers; second, nonbusiness licenses, such as are required for driving automobiles, hunting, fishing, and marriage. Franchises granting private companies the privilege of using streets for telephones and street cars form

another source of revenue. Many states also tax gasoline, inheritances (above certain amounts), and corporations.

National taxation. The national government secures revenue from the following sources arranged in the order of their importance: first, taxes on income; second, charges

Ewing Galloway

A LONG, LONG TRAIL

Taxes on gasoline and revenue from automobile licenses are generally used to help to build and to maintain roads like this stretch of the Columbia Highway in Oregon. Roads winding through the hills are more difficult and expensive to construct than those in a level country, but they are also more beautiful.

for public service; third, excises, or taxes on goods manufactured in the country, such as tobacco, drugs, and oleomargarine; fourth, customs, or duties, on imported goods, and fifth, miscellaneous items such as fees, fines, gifts, inheritance taxes, and sales of government property. The total income of the national government, including postal receipts, has in late years been about $4,000,000,000 annually.

Half the national revenue comes from taxes on the incomes of individuals and corporations, the total from this source in 1927 amounting to more than $2,000,000,000. Charges for service, including postal revenues, amount to about one sixth of the total, the income from this source in 1927 exceeding $680,000,000. Excises provide about $650,000,000. Customs, which in former years were the chief source of national income, now bring in only one seventh of the total revenue.

Summary. Our governments are our servants. Their activities are necessary for our welfare and happiness. The expense of carrying on their work, however, amounts to vast sums of money. The chief sources from which they draw their support, arranged in order of importance, are as follows: (1) taxation; (2) charges for public service; (3) fines, gifts, and escheats; (4) returns from government property. The principles generally accepted as desirable in all taxation are the collection of taxes at regular times, by methods convenient to taxpayers, without waste of public funds, and in accordance with the ability of taxpayers to pay. Of the three methods suggested for measuring ability — consumption, property, and income — the last is generally regarded as the fairest, especially when provision is made for exemptions, progressive rates, and a recognition of different sources of income. In the past our governments have usually determined their incomes by their expenses, but during late years budgets containing estimates of expenditures and income have been adopted with a resulting improvement in both economy and efficiency.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Explain the chief difference between the ways in which an individual and a government secure money.

2. What is a budget? What difference does it make to taxpayers whether a government has a budget system or not?

3. State whether the following taxes are in accordance with Adam Smith's principle of ability to pay: general-property taxes; fees; business licenses; franchises; taxes on gasoline; inheritance taxes. Give reasons in each instance.

4. Find the general-property tax of Mr. Scott, a man whose property is assessed at $8000. Assume that the community must raise $300,000 by the general-property tax and that the total value of privately owned property in the community is assessed at $10,000,000.

5. Explain the quotation at the head of this chapter.

THINGS TO DO

1. Find the expenditures and revenues of your local government, your state government, and the national government during the past year from the last financial statements of the governments served by the following officers: (1) Director of the Bureau of the Budget, Washington, D.C.; (2) the state treasurer at your state capitol; (3) the county or city treasurer at the county seat or at the city hall in your community.

2. Three pupils volunteer to make charts like those on page 332, showing the expenditures of the local, state, and national governments as revealed by the reports secured in reply to the letters mentioned above.

3. Make tables showing the five main items of expense and the five chief sources of revenue of the local, state, and national governments. In each instance give the amount of expense and income. Use the form given below.

Local Government		State Government		National Government	
Income	Expense	Income	Expense	Income	Expense

4. Three pupils volunteer to make charts like those on page 335, showing the income of the local, state, and national governments as given in the reports obtained in answer to the letters mentioned in project 1.

5. Picture in a bar graph (see page 192) the items in the table as worked out in project 3.

6. Bring to class three newspaper clippings or cartoons relating to taxation or government expense. If possible, find one item dealing with the local government, one with the state government, and one with the national government. Be able to show which part of this chapter each clipping illustrates.

BOOKS TO READ

1. "Recompensing the Indian," *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, 42–55.
2. * "The Treasury Department," *The American Government*, 79–96.
3. * "How you help Pay the Government's Expenses," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, VIII, 3440–3442.
4. "Paying the Bills," *Readings in Community Life*, Part III, section 5.

CHAPTER XVII

SELECTING OUR OFFICIALS

All free governments are party governments.—JAMES A. GARFIELD

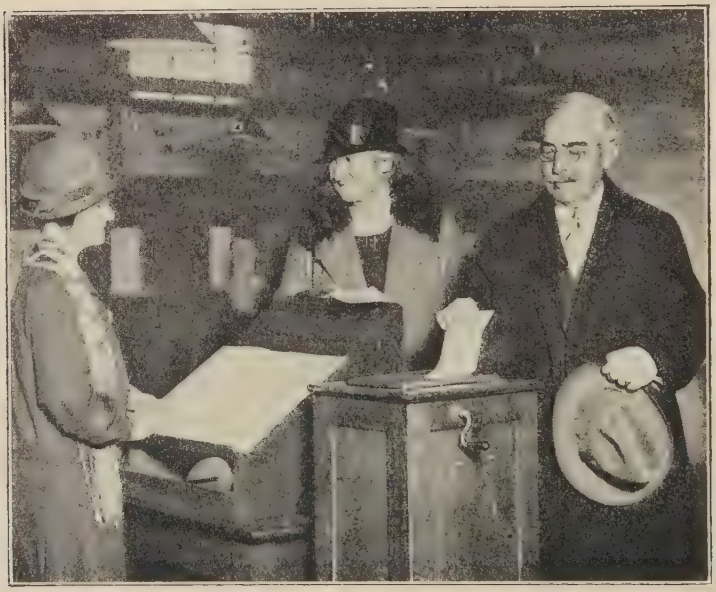
We can have exactly the kind of government we want if, with firm resolve, we exert ourselves to get it.—GENERAL JOHN J. PERSHING

SECTION I. WHY WE HAVE POLITICAL PARTIES

Representative government. Political parties always develop wherever representative government exists. When voters can come together, as in the New England town meeting, talk over questions, and decide common problems, parties are unnecessary. But when people live scattered over a wide area, like the United States, they cannot meet with one another in a single gathering. Even if they could so assemble, their vast numbers would make discussion impossible; only a few persons would be able to express opinions, and questions could not be decided with any satisfaction. The impossibility of holding gigantic town meetings, therefore, has caused the people in every democratic country to select representatives to make and execute the laws.

Differences in opinion. People usually differ on questions which come before them. Some would solve a problem in one way; others would work it out in an entirely different way. This tendency to disagree makes political parties necessary, for, so long as people differ, so long will those who hold similar views need to unite, or form parties, in order to elect representatives who will put their views into effect. In no other way can the people rule in a large country. Representative government is, in short, party government.

Importance of political parties. Behind every important act of government there is, then, the influence of political parties. In theory, state legislatures and Congress make the laws; in reality, the party which has the majority of members in



CASTING THE BALLOT

Before 1920, if mother went near the polling place at all, she stayed outside while father went in and voted. Now we see them here together, casting their ballots freely and independently. Maybe mother and father are voting the same ticket and, then again, maybe they are not. The woman at the left is an election official and the box in the center of the picture is the ballot box.

a legislative assembly determines legislation. On the surface, mayors, governors, and presidents appoint most of the officials who carry out the laws; in fact, party leaders select almost all appointive officers. As a rule, therefore, political parties control both lawmaking and law enforcement.

Development of political parties. Even so wise a man as Washington saw neither the need nor the importance of

party government. When president he tried for years to retain in his cabinet men who differed widely on public questions. Their disagreements, however, led at last to resignations, to a reorganization of the cabinet, and to the forming of the first two political parties in our history.

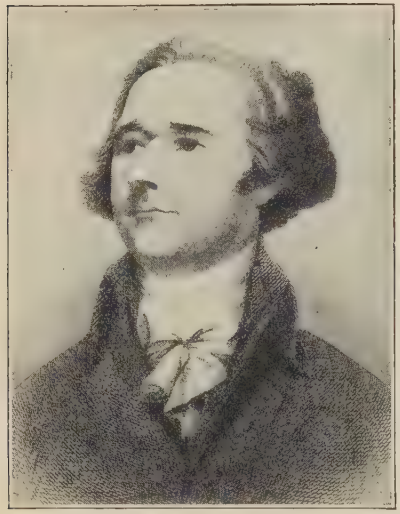
Of one of the parties, Hamilton became leader; of the other party, Jefferson was the chief. Hamilton and his followers believed in a strong national government, had little faith in the common people, and favored the financial and commercial classes. Jefferson and his supporters defended the rights of the states, opposed a strong national government, and had confidence in the people; they believed the welfare of the country depended more on farming than on commerce or manufactures.

THOMAS JEFFERSON

On Jefferson's tombstone are carved, at his request, these words: "Here was buried Thomas Jefferson, author of the Declaration of American Independence, of the Statute of Virginia for Religious Freedom, and Father of the University of Virginia." In addition to his great work as a thinker and statesman, Jefferson stands as one of our greatest political leaders; to him probably more than to any other one man was due the origin of the Democratic party.

During the first forty years under the Constitution (1789–1829), the national government was controlled part of the time by Hamilton and his followers and part of the time by Jefferson and his followers. Then the old leaders died, the old party names were dropped, and there slowly developed new political groups with new names, but holding most of the principles of the parties of Washington's day.

One of the new organizations adopted the name Whig and for twenty years and longer upheld the principles of Hamilton. After a hard struggle over slavery the Whig party died (1854), and a new party calling itself Republican became Hamilton's political heir. This party continues to our own time. Its chief rival, the Democratic party, traces its history without a break from the days of Jefferson to the present.



ALEXANDER HAMILTON

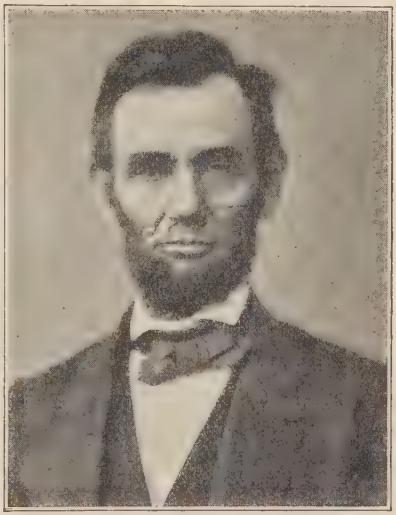
Alexander Hamilton was the first Secretary of the Treasury of the United States. His achievements in this office led Daniel Webster to say of him at a later day, "He smote the rock of national resources and abundant streams of revenue gushed forth; he touched the dead corpse of public credit and it sprang upon its feet." As the founder of the Federalist party, of which the present Republican party is the descendant, he occupies a leading place in American political history.

During the last half-century the Republicans and the Democrats have differed on the currency, the tariff, the trusts, and the League of Nations. The Republican party has steadily advocated a protective tariff; after some hesitation it came out in favor of a gold standard; in 1920 it opposed the League of Nations. The Democratic party has supported a tariff for revenue only; in 1896 it upheld the cause of free silver; it has urged strict government control of "big business," the early independence of the Philippine Islands, and in 1920 favored our entrance into the League of Nations.

Minor parties. In addition to the two major parties which have existed under various names throughout most of our

national history, minor organizations known as "third parties" have made their appearance from time to time.

Thus in 1840 opponents of slavery organized the Liberty party and, later, the Free Soil party. In the seventies foes of the liquor traffic founded the Prohibition party, the longest-lived "third party" in our history. Another interesting example of a minor party is the Socialist party; it holds that society rather than private individuals should own the means of producing and distributing wealth.



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ABRAHAM LINCOLN

Everybody knows and loves this kindly, rugged face. As the leader of our country during a great crisis, Lincoln is one of the two outstanding characters in American history. He was the first candidate of the Republican party to be elected president and while serving in that capacity met his tragic death. Like him, "Let us have faith that right makes might, and in that faith let us to the end dare to do our duty as we understand it."

Of what value, then, are minor parties? Judging by the past, their chief service seems to be to bring before the people issues which the two leading parties refuse to recognize. The growth of the minor groups has usually forced the great parties, sooner or later, to take a stand on the question at stake or be destroyed. Thus, before the Civil War, the Free-Soilers played a part in destroying the Whigs. In a somewhat similar way the Socialists have caused increasing attention to be paid to industrial and social problems. Nonpartisan organizations also have been able at times to secure the passage of important laws on which political parties would take no stand.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Tell why political parties are needed in a democracy. What is a democracy? Why are political parties never found in absolute monarchies?

2. What were the chief issues in the last presidential campaign? Find the attitude of the great parties on each issue.

3. Does a person who votes the ticket of a "third party" throw his vote away? Give reasons.

4. *Research problems for volunteers:*
   a. Lincoln had both Republicans and Democrats in his cabinet. Give reasons.
   b. In 1896 Bryan was the candidate for president, of both the Democrats and the Populists. Find why the two parties did not unite and form a single organization.

Section II. What Political Parties Do

Government by persons. Every act of government is the act of some person or group of persons. A group called Congress makes the national laws; officers directed by a man called the president enforce the national laws; persons who serve as judges interpret and apply the laws. Government, in short, is made up of men and women.

Control by caucus. In all democratic countries the persons who direct governmental activities and policies receive their offices through political parties. In the early days of the Republic a few people controlled the political parties of the time. Travel was difficult, the postal service was poor, news circulated slowly. The majority of people knew little about politics; most of them were not allowed to vote. Under such circumstances it was natural that the members of a legislature, finding it easy to meet together and being acquainted with the leading men of the country or of the state, should hold caucuses, or informal gatherings, to select candidates for the different offices. Such caucuses

nominated all the early presidents except George Washington and John Adams, whom the people voted for directly.

But as roads and canals multiplied and as more people gained the right to vote, people became dissatisfied with the caucus. Such a method of nomination, they said, was not in harmony with the Constitution; by it the people had no chance to choose candidates for office; under it legislators

TO THE REPUBLICAN VOTERS OF THE UNITED STATES:

IN COMPLIANCE with the rules adopted by the Republican National Convention of 1924, the Republican National Committee directs that a National Convention of delegated representatives of the Republican Party be held at Kansas City, Missouri, at eleven o'clock A. M., on Tuesday, June 12, 1928, for the purpose of nominating candidates for President and Vice-President, to be voted for at the Presidential Election on Tuesday, November 6, 1928, and for the transaction of such other business as may properly come before it.

The voters of the several States and of Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico, the Philippine Islands and the District of Columbia who are in accord with the principles of the Republican Party, believe in its declaration of policies, and are in sympathy with its aims and purposes, are invited to unite under this call in the selection of Delegates to said Convention.

Said National Convention shall consist of

(a) DELEGATES-AT-LARGE

1. Four Delegates-at-Large from each State.
2. Two additional Delegates-at-Large for each Representative-at-Large in Congress from each State.
3. Two Delegates-at-Large each for Alaska, District of Columbia, Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippine Islands.
4. Three additional Delegates-at-Large from each State casting its electoral vote, or a majority thereof, for the Republican nominee for President in the last preceding Presidential Election.

THE CONVENTION CALL

The two paragraphs shown above are from the official call for the convention issued by the Republican National Committee in 1928. The call is the invitation to the Republican voters to select delegates for the national nominating convention held at Kansas City, Missouri, June, 1928.

practically dictated all government policies. As a result of such criticism the caucus became so unpopular that it gradually fell into disuse.

The national convention. By 1832 a new method of choosing candidates and deciding party policies came into existence. The new plan proved so practical and democratic that with a few changes it has been used ever since. This method is the national nominating convention, a meeting of delegates from all parts of the country to select candidates for the presidency and vice presidency. It also

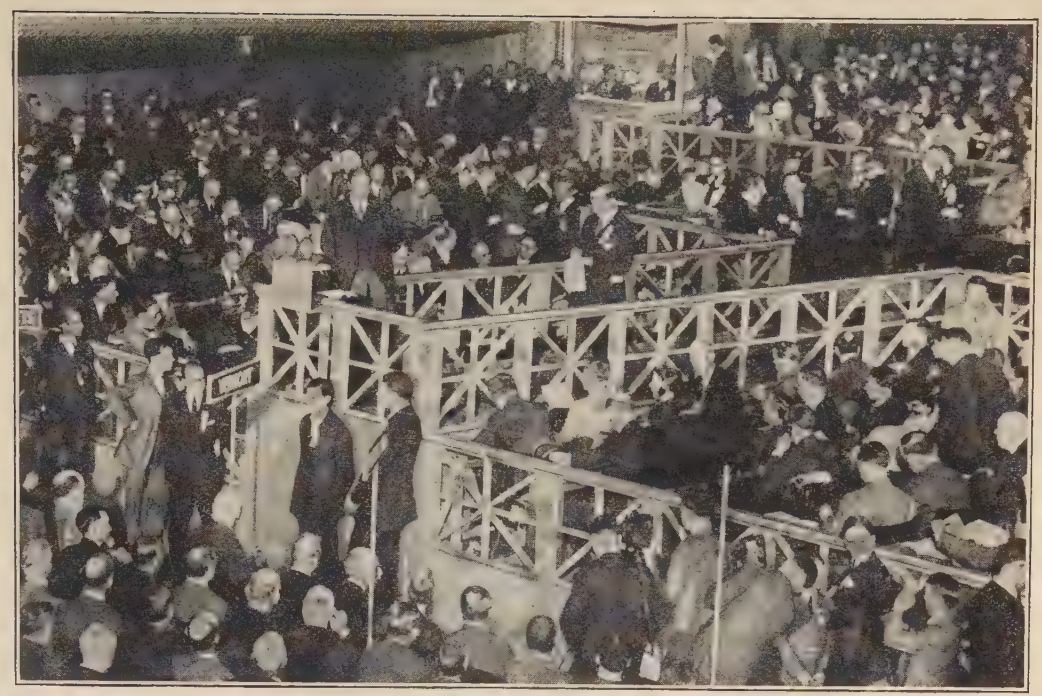
draws up a platform, or statement, of the views of the party on questions of the day, and (beginning in 1848) appoints a national committee to direct the campaign and to look after party interests for the next four years.

Delegates to the national convention were first elected by mass meetings, by local conventions, and by legislative caucuses. The different methods of selection naturally led to confusion, since two or more delegations from the same state would occasionally appear at the convention, each claiming to be the rightful representatives. The need of deciding such controversies led to the adoption of definite rules to govern the choice of delegates. So important did political parties finally become that every state in the Union now regulates their activities by law.

The primary. Today candidates for local offices, delegates to political conventions, and members of local party committees are usually chosen at primaries. In a few states a primary is a mass meeting of the voters of a party to nominate candidates for local offices. In most states, however, a primary is an election of party candidates carried on in practically the same way as a regular election. Voters go to the polls, receive ballots, and mark and deposit them in the ordinary way. Only the supporters of the party, of course, are expected to vote in the party primary.

Candidates for the party nomination may have their names placed on the primary ballot upon petition by a certain number of voters. As a rule the person receiving the largest vote in the primary becomes the nominee of the party in the approaching election, but in some states a second election is necessary if no candidate receives a majority of the ballots cast.

During late years the primary has been extended to include state officers, members of Congress, and delegates to the national convention. A number of states also have presidential primaries, in which voters may express their preference for candidates for the presidency. Opposition



DELIVERING THE KEYNOTE ADDRESS

Delegates, photographers, and newspaper men all contribute to the excitement of a national convention.

to the primary has recently arisen because of the time and expense that it involves.

All but a few states now require each voter to register once a year or every two years. In registering, a voter must give his name, address, age, and the length of time he has

PUTTING THE PLANKS IN THE PLATFORM

One of the hardest tasks of a political convention is the drawing up of the platform. The Committee on Resolutions, appointed by the convention, meets as this one is doing and attempts to thresh out differences of opinion. After the smoke of battle dies away in the committee room, the resolutions must be submitted to the convention, and another lively skirmish often takes place on the floor.

resided at his present home. This plan of registration makes it possible to guard elections against dishonest voting.

Conventions. Many states hold county, district, and state conventions to choose the candidates, delegates, and party officials whose selection is not already provided for by the state primary law. Usually the conventions also express opinions on public questions. Thus a county convention

may nominate candidates for county offices, elect delegates to the state convention, and appoint a county committee to look after party interests in the county. A state convention may nominate state officers, elect delegates-at-large to the national convention, adopt a platform of principles, and select members of the state committee which is to serve the party during the next four years.

Party machinery. To carry out its aims a political party uses two kinds of machinery. The first is the permanent organization, consisting of precinct, county, congressional, state, and national committees. The members of such committees usually serve for several years. They look after the interests of the party at all times. The second is the temporary organization, consisting of local, district, state, and national conventions, which meet at certain intervals and continue in session for only a few days; such gatherings nominate candidates, elect party officials, and decide party policies.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is a caucus? Tell how early caucuses violated the spirit of the Constitution. Are caucuses held nowadays? Ask an older member of your family or a neighbor.

2. What is a primary? In what way is a primary more important than a regular election? Is a primary more important in some states than in other states? Explain.

3. What is meant by "party machinery"? What is the chief difference between the permanent and the temporary organization of a party? Which seems more important? Why?

SECTION III. HOW WE MAKE POLITICAL DECISIONS

Early methods of voting. We make political decisions by means of the ballot. In the days of our great-grandparents a person voted by word of mouth. All the bystanders could

hear his choice of candidates. The plan made it hard for many people to vote as they really desired. A man might lose his job if he did not vote as his employer suggested, or he might lose his friends by supporting candidates whom they disliked. Oral voting also encouraged bribery, or the purchase of votes, since a vote-buyer could always see whether a voter "delivered the goods."

By 1860 most states had given up oral voting in favor of printed ballots. At first each voter prepared his own ballot; then candidates and political managers had ballots printed and distributed in the community. Since the ballots of each party were printed on paper of different colors, the onlookers could tell how everyone voted by the color of the ballot he used. Employers or bosses were able, therefore, to control voters quite as easily as when voting was oral. In addition, the private printing and possession of ballots made it easy to "stuff" the ballot box, that is, to drop in more than one ballot when voting.

Australian ballot. Such evils brought about the adoption of a system of voting that originated in Australia, but was first used in this country in Louisville, Kentucky, about forty years ago. Within a short time it spread to all parts of the United States and is now in use, at least in part, in every state in the Union.

The chief features of the Australian system of voting are as follows: first, all ballots are provided by public officials at public expense; second, the names of all candidates are placed on the same ballot — sometimes in columns by parties, sometimes in alphabetical order under the titles of the offices; third, the ballot is marked in secret, folded so that no one can tell how it is marked, and then placed in the ballot box.

Most states use the "party column" ballot. It tends to make a voter cast his ballot for all the candidates of the party (that is, to vote a "straight ticket"), since all he needs to do in voting is to place a cross mark in the circle

at the top of the column; naturally politicians prefer the "party column" ballot, because it helps to elect the entire ticket. The "office column" ballot, on the other hand, encourages independent, intelligent voting, since a person must indicate by a cross mark each candidate for whom he votes and must therefore look over the entire ballot.

A few communities have introduced voting machines. Where such devices are used a voter records his vote by pulling knobs or handles on a machine instead of by putting marks on a ballot. Since the machine counts each vote when cast, the result is known almost as soon as the polls close. In spite of this advantage many people oppose the machine because of its cost, complexity, and effect on independent voting. Since the machine is confusing and citizens are usually allowed only one or two minutes to use it, many people will vote a "straight ticket" rather than bother to study what levers to pull to show their real preference among the various candidates for office.

WHY CONSCIENTIOUS VOTERS DIE YOUNG

The ballot which this girl is holding is over four feet long. It contains the tax issues which the citizens of Cincinnati were expected to vote upon at a recent election. In addition, the voters were given large ballots containing the names of the candidates for office. Rather than blunder through such ballots, many citizens vote a straight party ticket in regard to candidates and neglect the tax issues entirely.

The long ballot. When a citizen goes to vote today he is handed a ballot on which, as a rule, hundreds of names are printed. In a recent Chicago election voters were given ballots containing the names of more than three hundred candidates. In addition to choosing presidential electors,

a United States senator, and three representatives in Congress (one from his district and two from the state as a whole), the citizen was expected to vote, first, for such state officers as governor, lieutenant governor, secretary of state, treasurer, senator, and representatives in the general assembly; secondly, for such county officers as bailiff, recorder, surveyor, sheriff, coroner, and members of the county board; thirdly, for three trustees of the sanitary district, and fourthly, for judges of the municipal, county, and circuit courts.

Including the primaries, a Chicago voter was expected during 1924 to take part in five different elections. Within four years he was called upon to select persons for over four hundred different offices. The burden was equally great in many other communities. In an election in New York City some years ago the ballot was fourteen feet long; in the average schoolroom it would reach from the ceiling to the floor.

A voter cannot choose intelligently, of course, from among the hundreds of candidates whose names appear on the average ballot. He is able, as a rule, to vote intelligently for president, United States senator, governor, and mayor. He may have reasons for his vote for representative in Congress, state senator, and alderman. But when he must cast a ballot for state treasurer, county clerk, university trustees, surveyor, and municipal judges, he is usually forced to vote blindly.

Immediately after an election in New York a few years ago, 87 per cent of the voters in one of the "better class" districts did not know the state treasurer who had just been elected, 85 per cent could not name their alderman, and 70 per cent were unable to tell who their new assemblyman was.

The chief evil in the long ballot is that it puts the selection of most officials into the hands of those who are in politics for what they can get out of it, not for the service they can

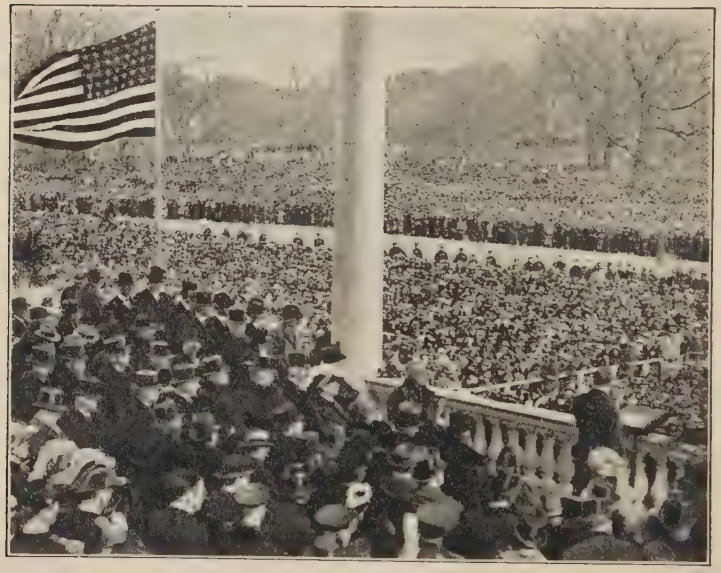
give. By "naming" the candidates in the caucus or the primary, frequently the "boss" or the "ring" in control of the party organization really determines who shall be elected. When such conditions exist, the government is run for the benefit of a few at the expense of all.

Short ballot. To remedy the evil of political "bosses" or "rings," the short ballot has been proposed. By it only four or five officials at most would be elected at one time, all minor offices being filled by appointment. Under the plan a voter would have no difficulty in choosing intelligently from among the candidates, since their number would be small enough for him to learn their fitness for office. We already have a short ballot in our national elections, since we elect only the president, vice president, senators, and representatives. The short ballot also exists, in part, in cities which have established commission or city-manager government. Such leaders as Roosevelt, Taft, and Wilson have urged the short ballot in state and local elections, believing that its adoption would do more to bring about real democracy than would any other single political reform.

Attitude of voters toward political parties. What should be the attitude of a voter toward joining a political party? This is a hard question to answer. Some people feel that they can best serve their country by refusing to join a party organization. By remaining independent they believe that they are freer to support the candidates they prefer, regardless of the party to which the candidates belong. On the other hand, many people feel that, since political parties rule in a democratic country, rogues will control affairs if honest folk refuse to join the organization. They maintain that an independent voter has no part in determining the policies of parties or in selecting candidates, — that he can only choose between them.

One's relation to a party, then, is a problem each person must solve for himself. He who remembers that a political

organization is only a means to advance the common good and that it should not be supported when those in control forget its real purpose will probably do well to become a member of a political organization and use his influence to decide its policies, select its candidates, and manage its



INAUGURATION OF THE PRESIDENT

At the inauguration of Calvin Coolidge the oath of office was administered by Chief Justice Taft, after which the President gave his inaugural address. On such occasions the portico of the Capitol is filled with the chief dignitaries of the United States and with diplomats from every nation in the world. In the plaza and street below, scores of thousands of people witness the ceremony and listen to the president's message.

affairs. But if party membership should lead him to act on the principle of "My party, right or wrong," it will be better for him not to join.

Nonpartisan associations. To help people vote intelligently in local and state elections, in which national politics have little or no part, organizations of public-minded citizens

have been formed in recent years, especially in large cities, to publish the records and qualifications of candidates and to recommend persons who should be elected. The Civic Leagues of Cleveland and St. Louis, the Good Government Association of Boston, and the Municipal Voters' League of Chicago have done excellent work. City clubs, civil-service-reform associations, and law-and-order leagues have also played an important part in electing able officers and in establishing wise governmental policies.

Summary. Representative government is party government. Since people do not agree on the questions which come before them, those who think alike must unite if they would have their ideas carried out. In all democratic countries, therefore, the activities of the government are controlled by parties. In our own country candidates were nominated and policies were decided at first by legislative caucuses, but in time there developed political conventions and the direct primary. To elect its candidates and carry out its policies, a political party has two kinds of machinery: (1) the permanent, consisting of standing committees; and (2) the temporary, consisting of conventions. The chief work of a national nominating convention is to select candidates for the presidency and vice presidency, to draw up a platform of principles, and to appoint a national committee to look after national party interests.

People decide political questions by means of the ballot. Voting was at first oral, but in time the secret ballot was introduced. The chief problem connected with voting is the long ballot, on which the names of hundreds of candidates appear. The adoption of the short ballot, by which only a few offices are filled at one election, is regarded by many leaders as our most needed political reform. The relation which individuals should bear to a party organization is a question which each person must decide for himself. Whatever the decision may be, it is vital to remember that "parties were made to serve, not to be served."

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Should a person always vote for his friends? Give reasons.

2. Tell the chief objections to oral voting; to the distribution of ballots by private individuals. Why is a person not allowed to discuss politics in a polling place?

3. What is a short ballot? What are its advantages? Tell how it could be established in your state.

4. What is a political machine? a political boss? a political ring? How does each secure power?

5. Which state has the largest electoral vote? the smallest? What is the electoral vote of your state? (See Appendix B.)

6. Tell why national politics ought to play no part in local elections.

THINGS TO DO

1. Choose a committee to find the number of people who voted in your community at the last general primary and compare with (1) the number who voted at the last general election, (2) the number who registered, and (3) the number eligible to register. Secure figures from the back files of a local newspaper or write to the editor.

2. Choose two boys to count (1) the titles of the offices and (2) the names of the candidates on the ballot or ballots used in your community at the last general election.

3. Stage a mock national political convention. For suggestions see McPheters, Cleaveland, and Jones's *Citizenship Dramatized*, 167–188.

4. Organize teams to debate the following question: *Resolved*, That all qualified voters, physically able, who do not take part in an election should be fined or imprisoned.

5. Examine the platforms of the Republican and Democratic parties in the last national campaign and find, if possible, six issues on which they differed.

6. Find the names of the committeemen in your precinct, how they secured their positions, and what they do. Ask your father or a neighbor.

7. Choose a committee to prepare a short ballot for your community, showing the offices now elective to be filled by appointment and naming the officers in each instance to whom the power of appointment would be given. The committee should explain the steps that would need to be taken in order to introduce the short ballot which they propose. Discuss the report in class.

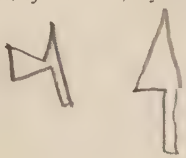
BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "What's the Good of Politics?" *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, VII, 2869–2871.
2. "The Poor Voter on Election Day," J. G. Whittier, *America's Message*, 272–273.
3. "Roosevelt's First Inaugural Address," T. Roosevelt, *In Our Times*, 175–179.
4. * "The Inside of an Election," J. J. Davis, *ibid.*, 229–233.
5. "Follow the Leader," *Fiber and Finish*, 103–115.
6. "Woman Suffrage," *The American Government*, 439–446.
7. * "Selecting our Officials," *Readings in Community Life*, Part III, section 6.

II. Home Readings

1. *How Presidents are Made*, by Arthur W. Dunn. Heath.
2. *The Honorable Peter Sterling*, by Paul L. Ford. Holt.
3. *The Despoilers*, by J. Edmund Buttree. Christopher.
4. *The People of the Ruins*, by Edward Shanks. Stokes.
5. *The Great Game of Politics*, by Frank R. Kent. Doubleday.
6. *The Boys' Own Book of Politics*, by William G. Shepherd. Macmillan.



CHAPTER XVIII

BEING A GOOD CITIZEN

I am not bound to win, but I am bound to be true. I am not bound to succeed, but I am bound to live up to what light I have. I must stand with anybody that stands right; stand with him while he is right and part with him when he goes wrong. — ABRAHAM LINCOLN

SECTION I. CITIZENSHIP

Meaning of citizenship. Citizenship is membership. In the broad sense of the word, we are citizens of all groups to which we belong. Each of us is a citizen of the home, the school, the church which he attends, the neighborhood where he dwells, and the community in which he lives. We are, in short, citizens of all groups of which we are members.

In the narrow sense of the term, however, citizenship is membership in the state. When so viewed, we are all citizens of the United States and of the state in which we reside, provided we were born in America or have become members of it through naturalization. In this second and more accurate use of the word, citizenship is considered in the present chapter.

Value of citizenship. Long ago citizenship was considered a precious possession. Citizens were looked upon as kinsfolk with all the rights and privileges of members of a common home. Only citizens of Athens could vote, hold office, sue in the courts, own land, and take part in religious ceremonies. The proudest boast of a Roman was "*Civis Romanus sum*" — "I am a Roman citizen." For centuries foreigners paid large sums of money to secure citizenship in the Roman state. Nothing was valued more highly.

NATHAN HALÉ

"I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country." The deathless words of this young patriot will live long after his statue has crumbled into dust. This memorial, which stands near the City Hall in New York, testifies that Americans, like the Romans, hold no price too dear to pay for one's country.

Cost of citizenship. Our civic rights, too, are beyond value. They have been won at great cost. The privileges that we often take as a matter of course have been established only at the price of sacrifice and suffering. In many instances they have been wrung from tyrants and oppressors with sword, battle-ax, and gun. They have cost blood, treasure, life itself.

The story of the winning of citizenship is an age-long tale of courage, daring, and struggle. To those who established our liberties we owe a debt we can never repay. The least that we can do is to hand on the rights they won for us unimpaired and undiminished to those who live after us.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Write in your own words a definition of citizenship. Compare your answer with definitions in the dictionary.

2. Are you a citizen? Can you prove that your answer is correct? Explain.

3. How long must a person reside in your state before he becomes a citizen? Look in your state constitution.

4. *Research topics for volunteers:*
   a. Describe the ceremony by which an Athenian boy was admitted to citizenship.
   b. Tell a story from American or English history that shows something of the cost of one of our rights as citizens today.

SECTION II. OUR RIGHTS AS CITIZENS

Protection. The only human rights mentioned in the Declaration of Independence are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. If they are not maintained, all other rights are of slight value. To safeguard them is the chief duty of every government, and to be secure in their enjoyment is the first right of every citizen.

By his acts, it is true, a citizen may forfeit all claim to protection. If he is guilty of crime, the state may take away his property, confine him in prison, and even deprive him of life itself. But if he obeys the laws, a citizen is entitled to protection at all times and in all places, — at home, on the seas, or in distant lands. To guard his life, preserve his property, and maintain his privilege of living peaceably in his own way, the government will, if necessary, call out the police, the militia, and the armed forces of the nation. All law-abiding citizens have a right to protection.

Justice. Closely related to the right to protection is the right of all citizens to equal and exact justice. If the laws are fair, they provide equal rights for all and special privileges for none. Under such circumstances, justice consists in giving each person his due under the law.

In order that everyone may receive justice, our national Constitution provides that no citizen shall "be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law"; that private property shall not "be taken for public use, without just compensation"; that "the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended" unless the public safety is endangered by rebellion or invasion; that an accused person shall have "the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury"; that no person shall "be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb" for the same offense; and that "excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted." These provisions apply in the main to the national government, but the constitutions of most of the states lay similar restrictions upon the state governments. Let us examine the meaning of each limitation named.

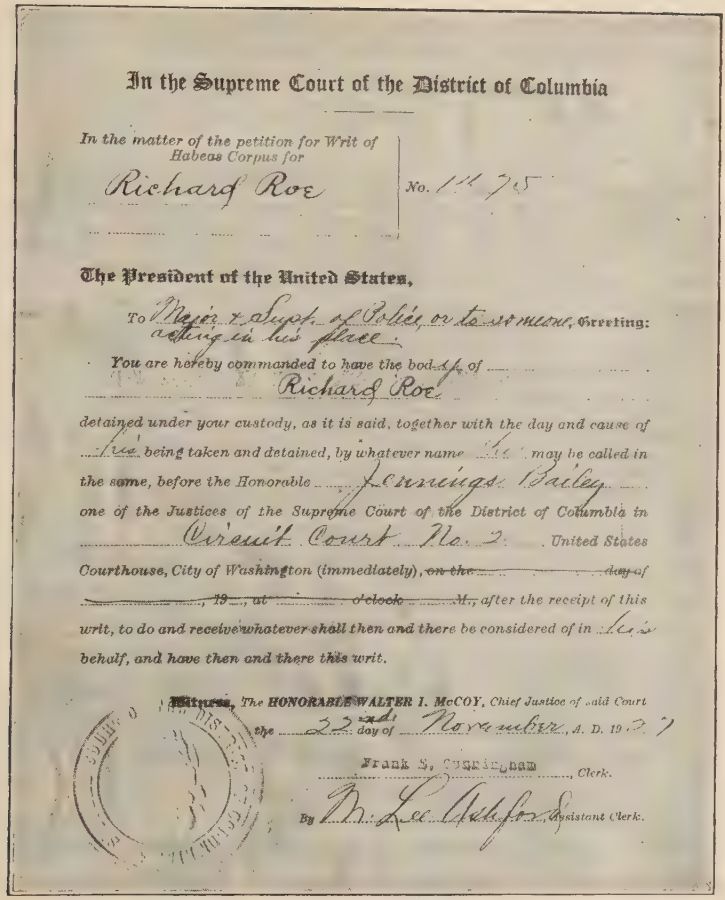
The first provision concerning "due process of law" prevents officers of the government from depriving any citizen of life, freedom, or property, except in accordance with law or as punishment for crime of which the individual shall have been properly convicted.

The second, which forbids the seizure of private property for public use without just compensation, prevents officials from taking the property of an individual even for a public purpose without fair payment. The restriction, however, does not prohibit the seizure of private property for public roads, streets, parks, and other improvements, provided the owner is paid a fair price.

The third provision guarantees the writ of habeas corpus except in times of invasion or rebellion. This writ, which is our greatest safeguard against arbitrary imprisonment, is an order signed by a judge commanding a jailer or other custodian to bring a person held in confinement into open court to show why the prisoner is held. If the person is wrongfully detained, the judge orders his immediate release. The writ may be secured by the friends of a prisoner, by his attorney, or by the prisoner himself. The provision quoted above requires the writ to be issued in all cases except in times of grave national danger.

The right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial jury is one of the oldest and most cherished safeguards of justice among English-speaking peoples. It prevents the long imprisonments, often without just cause, common in most countries until a century ago. It provides for the hearing of evidence in public by a jury made up of people who look on life in much the same way as the accused. The jury system has weaknesses and defects, but it is the best method yet developed to establish justice in cases at law.

The provision that no one shall be forced to undergo a second trial for the same offense prevents the injustice certain to result from placing a person on trial again and again on the same accusation. Under such conditions an innocent man would, sooner or later, almost always be found guilty. Even if acquitted, repeated trials would destroy his peace of mind and eat up his property. In this connection we must remember, however, that if no decision has been reached no trial has occurred.



In the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia

In the matter of the petition for Writ of Habeas Corpus for

Richard Roe

No. 11705

The President of the United States,

To Major Supt. of Police, or to someone acting in his place.

Greeting:

You are hereby commanded to have the body of

Richard Roe

detained under your custody, as it is said, together with the day and cause of his being taken and detained, by whatever name he may be called in the same, before the Honorable Jennings Bailey one of the Justices of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia in Circuit Court No. 2 United States Courthouse, City of Washington (immediately), ~~on the day of , 19 , at o'clock M.~~, after the receipt of this writ, to do and receive whatever shall then and there be considered of in his behalf, and have then and there this writ.

~~Witness~~, The HONORABLE WALTER I. McCOY, Chief Justice of said Court the 22nd day of November A. D. 19 27

Frank S. Cockerham Clerk.

By M. Lee Addison Assistant Clerk.

THE WRIT OF HABEAS CORPUS

Under the law the official to whom this writ is addressed must bring the person named within it before the judge and show cause why the prisoner should be detained. The writ protects an innocent person from being kept in prison without a chance to defend himself.

The relation between justice and the provisions about reasonable bail, fair fines, and humane punishments is so clear as to call for little comment. To require unreasonable amounts as bail in petty cases, or to exact fines beyond the seriousness of an offense, or to punish offenders by barbarous methods would be to defeat the very ends of justice.

Freedom of expression. The right to express one's views freely is another privilege guaranteed in both our national and state constitutions. Freedom of speech and of the press is necessary to free government. If people were not allowed to criticize the work of their officials, harmful acts would pass uncondemned and unwise policies would continue to injure society long after free criticism would have brought them to an end. Practically all reforms grow out of free discussion. It is hard to see how people could decide public questions wisely if freedom of utterance were prohibited.

Freedom to express opinion is, indeed, essential to progress. As a great thinker once pointed out, to silence an opinion may be to prevent truth, for the opinion that is silenced may be true. Even though the silenced opinion may be wrong, it may contain some truth, for rarely indeed is the whole truth summed up in any one view. Freedom of expression therefore makes for the best interests of society. So long as truth and error are allowed free expression, truth will always win in the end. As John Milton once said, "Let Truth and Falsehood grapple: whoever knew Truth put to the worse in a free and open encounter?"

Liberty of speech and liberty of the press, however, do not mean that a person may say or publish anything he pleases. To spread false and malicious reports is a crime punishable by fine or imprisonment. Nor may one under the plea of freedom of expression stir people up to acts of lawlessness, or publish articles, books, and pictures dangerous to the public welfare. Everyone is responsible for what he prints or utters. Although he may criticize freely,

he has no right to cause disorder or to injure others by falsehood or misrepresentation. To steal property is bad; but to ruin a person's name by gossip or slander is worse. As one of Shakespeare's characters says,

> Who steals my purse steals trash; 'tis something, nothing;
> 'Twas mine, 'tis his, and has been slave to thousands;
> But he who filches from me my good name
> Robs me of that which not enriches him,
> And makes me poor indeed.

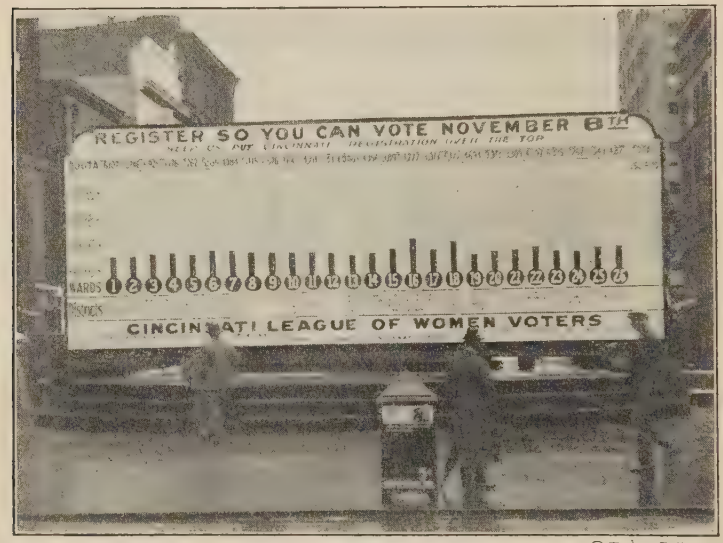
Freedom of assembly and petition. Closely related to freedom of expression is the right of citizens to assemble peaceably and to petition the government for redress of grievances. By such means people are able to discuss their problems and difficulties and to bring desired reforms to the attention of public officials.

But the right of assembly, like the right of freedom of expression, may not be used so as to cause disorder or endanger society. If an epidemic of disease breaks out in the community, the duty of the authorities is to prevent public assemblies and thus safeguard the public health. In like manner, government officials may forbid public meetings or the gathering of crowds if they think that such gatherings are likely to prove dangerous to peace and order.

Freedom of religion. Another right of citizenship is freedom of religion. In early times religion was looked upon as an affair of the state in much the same manner as education is regarded today. Temples were built by the government and religious ceremonies were performed under its control; everyone was required to accept the state religion, to attend its services, and to contribute to its support.

But with the passing of time religious differences developed, and cruel persecutions and wars took place. Such disasters slowly brought about religious toleration, that is, the acceptance of religion as a private matter, with

recognition of the right of everyone to worship God in his own way and according to his own conscience. Religious liberty does not mean, however, that people may do anything they wish in the name of religion. They cannot offer human sacrifices, or practice polygamy. They cannot have



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GETTING OUT THE VOTE

During recent years only half the qualified voters in our country have exercised their right of suffrage. This sign was erected in Cincinnati, Ohio, by the League of Women Voters in an effort to secure a full registration and a complete vote. Would the plan stimulate voting in your neighborhood?

religious ceremonies that will disturb the public peace. They can engage only in acts that are not harmful to society.

Participation in government. Americans believe that governments derive "their just powers from the consent of the governed." They believe in "government of the people, by the people, for the people." They believe, therefore, that citizens are entitled to share in government, that is, to vote and to hold office.

Voting and officeholding, however, are privileges rather than rights. All citizens, regardless of age, education, or occupation, have a right to life, liberty, property, trial by jury, freedom of expression, religious liberty, and the equal protection of the law. But only part of the people may vote or hold office.

Boys and girls under twenty-one, for example, are excluded from voting because they lack experience. Criminals are denied the ballot because they are enemies of society. The feeble-minded and the insane are not allowed to vote because they are mentally unable to make wise decisions. People who cannot read and write may be denied the suffrage because of ignorance. In short, voting is a privilege granted by the state; it may be withheld by the state on any ground except race, color, previous condition of servitude, or sex.

Restrictions are placed upon officeholding also. No one may become a member of the national House of Representatives until he is twenty-five years old or a United States senator until he is thirty. No one may serve as president who is not a native-born citizen of the United States and at least thirty-five years of age. Usually no one may become a judge or a prosecuting attorney who is not a lawyer. Thus age, birth, and occupation enter into the holding of public office.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Which of the rights of citizenship discussed in this section do you value most? Why? Which do you value least? Why?

2. Can you name any rights of citizenship not treated in the section? Explain.

3. Rights are protected in order to benefit the community as a whole rather than to help individual citizens. Explain and give an example of the truth of the preceding statement.

4. How long must an adult live in your precinct and county before he is allowed to vote? Tell why such a restriction is made.

5. What is the writ of habeas corpus? Why is it so called? (Consult the dictionary.) What does it mean to "suspend" the writ? Why does the Constitution permit the writ to be suspended in times of invasion or rebellion?

Section III. Our Duties as Citizens

Rights and duties. Every right brings with it a duty. Every benefit received calls for a service in return. Every privilege has a corresponding obligation.

As members of the home we have a right to share in the fun and affection of the household, but we are in honor bound to do our part of the work and our share in making the home a center of happiness and peace. As members of the school we have a right to receive instruction, but it is our duty to master our lessons. As citizens of the state we have a right to protection, whenever need arises, but we are under obligation in return to do our share in enabling the state to provide protection.

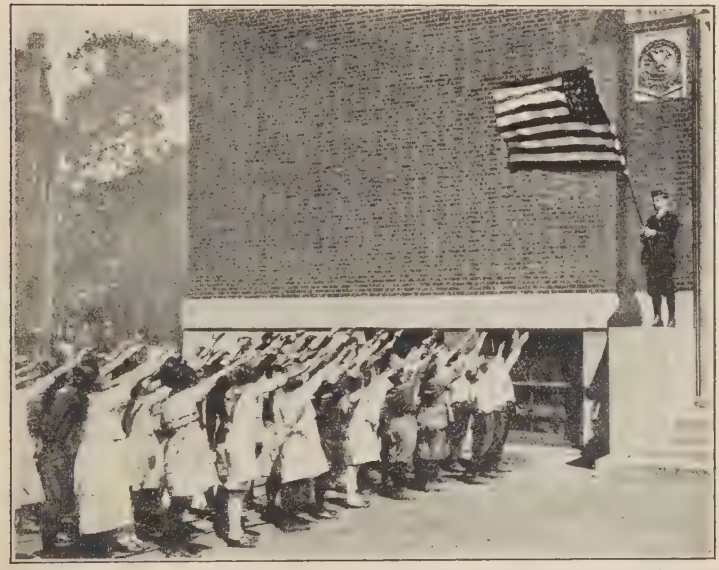
Citizenship, then, has duties as well as rights. He who receives but refuses to give, is a parasite; the community would be better off without him; he is an undesirable citizen. But he who serves as well as receives service, who performs duties as well as enjoys benefits, who makes the community better because he lives in it, is a good citizen.

Obedience to the law. Our first obligation as citizens is to obey the law. This duty is binding whether we like a legislative act or whether we dislike it. Only in cases of conscience, when to obey a law would be to do what we think is wrong, is disobedience to law justified. The refusal of Americans to pay the tea tax of Revolutionary times is an example of this principle.

The good citizen, then, respects the law. He sees in it the sovereign will of the people. He accepts its provisions in the same way that a good sportsman accepts the rules of a game. He honors rightful authority wherever he meets it.

Civic service. A second duty of citizenship is to render civic service, that is, to serve on juries, to hold office, and to accept membership on public boards.

One of the most serious problems of our day is caused by the refusal or unwillingness of able and intelligent people to take public office. The character of a government depends,



SALUTING THE FLAG

"I pledge allegiance to the Flag of the United States of America and to the Republic for which it stands; one Nation, indivisible, with Liberty and Justice for all."

of course, on the character of its officials. If capable men and women are unwilling to serve the state, those who are incapable or selfish will manage its affairs. The result will be harmful to all.

Realizing his obligations to society, the good citizen is always ready to answer a call to public service. Like Emerson, he will accept the position of hogreeve in a town; like Cleveland, he will serve as sheriff in a county; or, like

Roosevelt, he will become a justice of the peace, a state legislator, or a member of a civil-service commission. If his training does not fit him for high office, the good citizen will at least accept jury service or positions on boards for which he is qualified. He stands ever ready to serve.

Voting. Voting is a privilege, but it is also an obligation, and a vital one. In the words of President Coolidge,

> The whole system of American government rests on the ballot box. Unless citizens perform their duties there, such a system of government is doomed to failure. If the people fail to vote, a government will be developed which is not their government.

At one time the United States led the world in the percentage of votes cast; today we stand at the foot. Until 1900 four out of every five Americans entitled to vote cast their ballots at presidential elections; during the elections of 1920 and 1924 only one out of every two went to the polls and in the congressional elections of 1926 only one out of every three. In Great Britain, on the other hand, 82 per cent of the qualified voters cast their ballots in the election of 1924; in Germany, 76 per cent; in Canada, 71 per cent; in France, 70 per cent; and in Italy, 64 per cent.

Aware of his obligations as a voter, the good citizen takes pains to register. He goes to the polling place on election day. More than that, he uses his influence to get his friends and neighbors to register and to vote in both primary and regular elections.

Information on public questions. Closely related to the duty of taking part in government is the obligation of citizens to be well informed on civic questions. It is not enough for a citizen to act; his duty is to act well, for otherwise he may do harm rather than good. A citizen is under obligation, therefore, to study public questions; he cannot act wisely on matters that he does not understand.

Conscious of his need for information, the good citizen takes an interest in public problems. He joins the civic

organization in his locality. He finds time to attend public meetings, to look over public reports, to examine the recommendations of good-citizenship leagues. He reads the newspapers, but does not always accept their views, knowing that news items are often unreliable and frequently misrepresent those to whom the newspaper is

GOOD BOY SCOUTS — GOOD CITIZENS

Like a good Boy Scout, the good citizen is resourceful, loyal, courageous, helpful, strong, and clean.

opposed. He secures information at first hand by talking with public officials, by visiting public institutions, and by observing the management of public affairs. His mind is always open to the truth.

Love of country. Finally, as citizens it is our duty, as well as our privilege, to love our country. This means much more than celebrating the Fourth of July, or saluting the Stars and Stripes, or standing when we hear the strains of

"The Star-Spangled Banner." When what they stand for is realized, such ceremonies are important and beautiful, but they may become mere forms, signifying nothing. Many of our worst citizens are always willing to join in the singing of "America" or to take part in a flag drill. Love of country, however, calls for devotion, sacrifice, service.

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GOOD CAMP FIRE GIRLS — GOOD CITIZENS

In a camp in the woods these Camp Fire Girls are performing an Indian ceremony. Like the Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls learn to be dutiful, reverent, trustworthy, loyal, helpful, and kind.

The true patriot, then, feels a deep affection for his country. He cherishes its past, believes in its ideals, has faith in its future. He shows his devotion by personal sacrifices for the common welfare. He performs faithfully the ordinary, humdrum duties of everyday life. He appreciates the virtues and merits of his native land, but is not blind to its defects or shortcomings.

Qualities in good citizenship. The good citizen is intelligent. He knows the history of his country and understands its institutions. He is interested in its affairs. He thinks straight. He values expert opinion on technical matters and appreciates trained and experienced public officials.

The good citizen is open-minded and tolerant. He sees the viewpoints of others. He welcomes new light. He has strong convictions, but changes his mind when evidence shows that he is wrong. He is not obstinate.

The good citizen is courageous. He stands up for what he believes is right. He attacks injustice wherever he finds it. Like Lincoln, he "dares to do his duty as he understands it," regardless of personal consequences.

The good citizen is honest. He keeps his word. He never intentionally misleads or deceives others. He can be counted on. He is trustworthy and dependable.

The good citizen is unselfish. He is considerate of the rights of others. He places the welfare of the group above the welfare of self. He sacrifices his own interests, if need be, for the common good.

The good citizen is coöperative. He is a comfortable companion. He gets along with people. He can give and take. He pulls well in harness, carries his share of the load, and always does his part. He is a good team mate. In short, the good citizen is intelligent, open-minded, courageous, honest, unselfish, and coöperative.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What does it mean to salute the flag? to celebrate the Fourth of July? to stand when singing "The Star-Spangled Banner"?

2. Explain five duties of citizenship discussed in this chapter. Which of the five apply to both junior and adult citizens? Which apply only to adult citizens?

3. Name two duties of citizenship not discussed in the chapter. Tell whether they apply to junior or adult citizens, or to both.

4. Why should a voter study public questions? Should a non-voter also study them? Give reasons.

5. What sources of reliable information should you suggest to a person who wished to learn how to vote in your next local election?

6. Which duty of citizenship is most often neglected? Which is most important for citizens to fulfill? Give reasons for your answers.

7. Tell about the best citizen you ever knew.

THINGS TO DO

1. Look through the Constitution (pages 717–733) and list all the rights of citizenship you find. Read your state constitution, listing also the rights which it guarantees. Arrange your answer in two columns, as follows:

THE RIGHTS OF CITIZENSHIP

NATIONAL CONSTITUTION	STATE CONSTITUTION

2. Compare the items in your answer to number 1 with the rights of citizenship discussed in the present chapter, putting a check (✓) before each right mentioned in both places.

3. Suggest three ways to increase voting in your community at the next election. From the suggestions offered by members of the class, choose by vote the five most important.

4. Choose a committee to investigate and report on voting in your community or state during the last two national elections. (Consult the files of local newspapers, newspaper almanacs, or write to your election officials.) Put the findings of the committee in your notebook in the following form:

VOTING RECORD OF ———

	ELECTION OF 1924	ELECTION OF 1928
Men eligible to vote		
Men who voted		
Percentage who voted		
Women eligible to vote		
Women who voted		
Percentage who voted		
Total eligible to vote		
Total who voted		
Percentage who voted		

5. Write out two conclusions from the table given above. After class discussion select by vote the three main conclusions and copy them in your notebook.

6. The use of the franchise throughout the nation in recent national elections was as follows:

	1920	1924
Citizens of voting age	54,421,832	57,687,142 [1]
Total who voted	26,674,171	29,127,982
Percentage who voted	49	50.4

Contrast the vote in your community, as shown by the investigation in number 4, with that in the nation as a whole, as shown above.

7. Ask four neighbors who did not vote in the last election why they did not vote. Report their reasons in class, mentioning no names. When all reports are in, tabulate the chief causes of non-voting in your neighborhood or community.

8. Choose a committee to prepare a short article on voting in your community. In the article include an account of the investigation made in number 4, the conclusions reached in number 5, the contrast found in number 6, the causes discovered in number 7, and the remedies proposed in number 3. After suggestions and criticisms in class, revise the article and send it to your local newspapers. Paste the account, when published, together with any editorial comments, in your notebook.

[1] Estimated.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. * "Makers of the Flag," F. K. Lane, *America's Message*, 9–12.
2. "An American Creed," C. W. Eliot, *ibid.*, 267–268.
3. * "Wanted," J. G. Holland, *ibid.*, 271.
4. "Good Citizenship," G. Cleveland, *ibid.*, 271–272.
5. "Am I a Good Citizen?" M. Nicholson, *ibid.*, 274–275.
6. "Free Speech in War-Time," J. H. Robinson, *In Our Times*, 382–385.
7. "Andrew Carnegie, Philanthropist," *Modern Great Americans*, 50–62.
8. "The Personal Equation," *Fiber and Finish*, 116–129.
9. "John Quincy Adams, who Always Did his Duty," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, I, 14–16.
10. "Courage," *ibid.*, II, 907–908.
11. * "Keeping our Word," *ibid.*, V, 1915.
12. "Being a Good Citizen," *Readings in Community Life*, Part III, section 7.

II. Home Readings

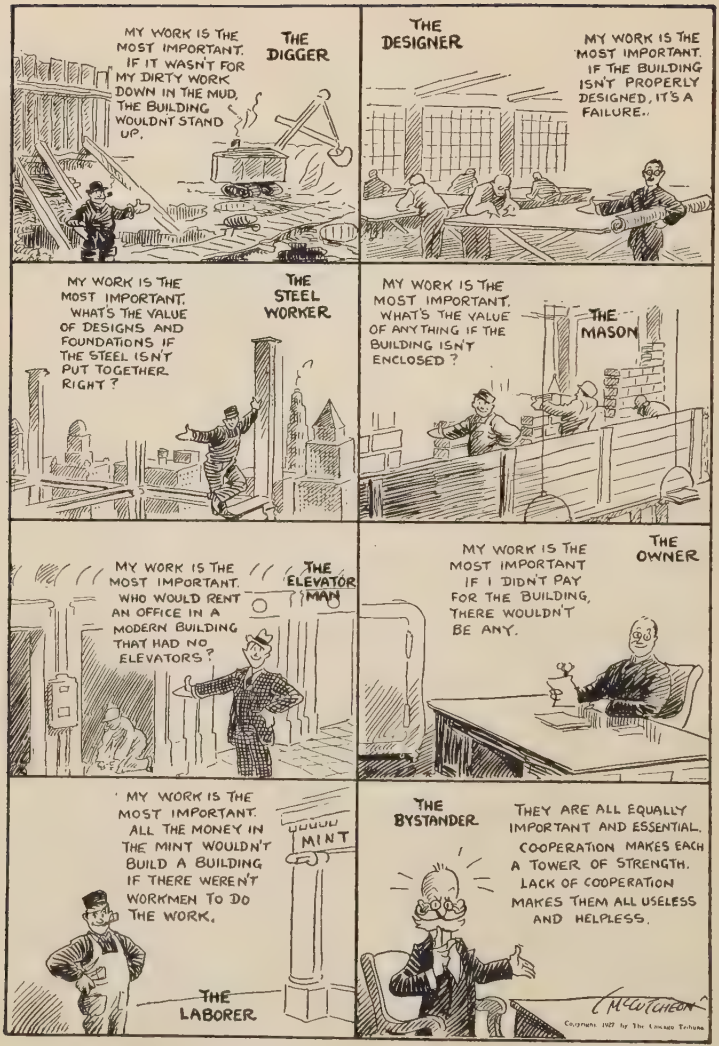
A. Biography, History, Science, Essay

1. * *America First*, by Lawton B. Evans. Bradley.
2. *Four Great Americans who became Famous*, by James Baldwin. Werner.
3. *Girls who became Famous*, by Sarah K. Bolton. Crowell.
4. * *Boy's Life of Abraham Lincoln*, by Helen Nicolay. Century.
5. *Heroes of Today*, by Mary R. Parkman. Century.
6. *Heroines of Service*, by Mary R. Parkman. Century.
7. *Joan of Arc*, by Laura E. Richards. Appleton.
8. *Famous Leaders of Character in America*, by Edwin Wildman. Page.
9. * *Adventures in Friendship*, by David Grayson. Doubleday.
10. * *Worthwhile Americans*, by Edwin E. Sparks. Weidenheimer.
11. *Heroes of Progress in America*, by Charles Morris. Lippincott.
12. *Real Americans*, by Mary H. Wade. Little.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. * *The Man without a Country*, by Edward E. Hale. Ginn.
2. *The Spy*, by J. Fenimore Cooper. Ginn.
3. * *Janice Meredith*, by Paul L. Ford. Dodd.
4. *The Pilot*, by James Fenimore Cooper. Putnam.
5. *Drums*, by James Boyd. Scribner.
6. *Richard Carvel*, by Winston Churchill. Macmillan.
7. *Abraham Davenport*, by John G. Whittier. Houghton.
8. * *Alice of Old Vincennes*, by Maurice Thompson. Grosset.
9. *Abraham Lincoln*, by John Drinkwater. Houghton.

PART FOUR. INDUSTRY AND BUSINESS


MY WORK IS THE MOST IMPORTANT. IF IT WASN'T FOR MY DIRTY WORK DOWN IN THE MUD, THE BUILDING WOULDN'T STAND UP.
THE DIGGER
THE DESIGNER
MY WORK IS THE MOST IMPORTANT. IF THE BUILDING ISN'T PROPERLY DESIGNED, IT'S A FAILURE.
MY WORK IS THE MOST IMPORTANT. WHAT'S THE VALUE OF DESIGNS AND FOUNDATIONS IF THE STEEL ISN'T PUT TOGETHER RIGHT?
THE STEEL WORKER
MY WORK IS THE MOST IMPORTANT. WHAT'S THE VALUE OF ANYTHING IF THE BUILDING ISN'T ENCLOSED?
THE MASON
MY WORK IS THE MOST IMPORTANT. WHO WOULD RENT AN OFFICE IN A MODERN BUILDING THAT HAD NO ELEVATORS?
THE ELEVATOR MAN
MY WORK IS THE MOST IMPORTANT IF I DIDN'T PAY FOR THE BUILDING, THERE WOULDN'T BE ANY.
THE OWNER
MY WORK IS THE MOST IMPORTANT. ALL THE MONEY IN THE MINT WOULDN'T BUILD A BUILDING IF THERE WEREN'T WORKMEN TO DO THE WORK.
MINT
THE LABORER
THE BYSTANDER
THEY ARE ALL EQUALLY IMPORTANT AND ESSENTIAL. COOPERATION MAKES EACH A TOWER OF STRENGTH. LACK OF COOPERATION MAKES THEM ALL USELESS AND HELPLESS.
McCUTCHEON
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LINKS IN A CHAIN

Whose work is the most important? Which appeals most to you?

CHAPTER XIX

EARNING A LIVING

God gives us no raiment; he gives us flax and sheep. If we would have coats on our backs, we must take them off our flocks, and spin them and weave them. If we would have anything of benefit, we must earn it. — HENRY WARD BEECHER

SECTION I. WHY WE MUST WORK

Experience of the Virginia settlers. The Englishmen who founded Jamestown, Virginia, soon learned why work is necessary. Many of them, as members of the nobility, knew nothing about labor. All their lives they had been waited upon by servants. Ignorant of the tasks and dangers to be faced in the wilderness, they sailed for America, expecting to find gold, silver, and precious stones as plentiful as shells on the seashore.

The little vessel which brought these hopeful adventurers to Virginia was fitted with small cargo space and could leave the settlers food for only a few months. Yet, eager to find the riches of which they dreamed, the men spent their time searching for gold, silver, and diamonds, while their supply of provisions grew smaller and smaller. Soon the more thoughtful colonists saw with anxiety the coming of a day when, their food being gone, starvation would follow.

For a time the settlers gained relief by buying corn from the Indians; but the supplies of the red men were small, and as the weeks passed, conditions grew steadily worse. In the crisis doughty Captain John Smith persuaded many of the men to stop hunting for gold and to turn their energies to securing food. The stubborn or lazy ones who hesitated

or refused to help were quickly brought to terms by Smith's order that "he who will not work shall not eat."

Work and the satisfaction of human wants. Captain Smith's rule is a short answer to the question why we need to work. We must work to live; we can obtain food only through labor.

If the Jamestown gentlemen had found corn as free as air, they would not have needed to drop their fascinating

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THRESHING WHEAT IN MONTANA

Our daily bread represents the labors of tillers of the soil, harvesters, threshers, railroad men, millers, bakers, and delivery boys. Without their combined efforts our tables would lack the staff of life.

hunt for riches and give their energy to tilling the soil. But corn, unlike air, is not furnished by nature in limitless quantities. It comes as a rule only from work.

Now and then, it is true, we may be able to satisfy our wants without effort on our own part. This is the case when we inherit money, receive gifts, or find treasure. But even in such instances someone had to work to accumulate the money or to make the gifts, because such things are scarce.

Scarcity of goods. If, then, food, bracelets, and automobiles were as abundant as air and light, none of us would

have to work. All we should need to do when we wanted something would be to reach out and take it. But the world we live in is not that kind of world. Jewelry does not grow on bushes; clothing is not found on trees; bread is not so plentiful as the air we breathe. The goods we want are scarce. They require effort to secure. Hence we work.

ONE REASON WE WORK

From a one-room shack in the woods to beautiful, well-kept homes like these is the result of man's progress in wants and industry. The houses, the trimmed lawns, the hedges, shrubs, and walks have all called for labor not required in a wilderness cabin.

Improvement in living. A second reason we must work, closely related to that just explained, is the desire most of us have to improve our standard of living or to achieve goals that can be reached only through labor.

One of the main causes for the lack of progress by savages is the limitation of their wants to the necessities of life — food, clothing, and shelter. Such wants, being few in number and simple in character, can usually be satisfied with little effort. The wants of the Indians, for

example, were for the most part limited to bodily needs. Their hunger was gratified by game secured in the forest and fish caught in the lakes and streams; their desire for clothing was met by deerskin and buffalo hide; their want for shelter was satisfied by rude wigwams of poles, bark, and hides; their need for weapons and tools was filled by flint, feathers, fiber, and hickory saplings.

But as the Indians came into contact with the whites, their wants multiplied both in number and in difficulty of gratification. To satisfy the new desires, they extended their hunting and trapping expeditions and enlarged their efforts in farming, weaving, and basket-making. Thus, the increase in their wants led to an increase in their industry. The result was a higher standard of living, especially when they came to desire books and magazines, schools, libraries, churches, and colleges.

So long as people are satisfied with the bare necessities of life, they will put forth no effort to improve their living conditions. So long as they are content with rude huts as protection from heat and cold, they will do nothing to provide themselves with comfortable or beautiful homes. A noted traveler tells of a primitive tribesman whose sole desire was to secure enough money to buy several slaves; that done, he would quit his job as guide and let his slaves work for him the rest of his life. But one day he saw a steamer chair and immediately felt a new want; although the money for the slaves was almost complete, he stayed at his job until he had earned the coveted chair. Could his wants only have been enlarged, could his standard of living have been raised, so as to include desires of the mind as well as of the body, a reason for work would have been established which might have lasted through life.

The fine gentlemen who founded Jamestown already had the necessities of life in England; they came to America, as we saw, because they believed that they would have no trouble in finding riches in the new land. They were

seeking the means to satisfy a want. They did not intend to remain in Virginia, but planned to return home, when they had gathered sufficient treasure, to spend the rest of their days in luxury, with stately mansions for residences, numerous servants for attendants, rich apparel for clothing, the best of food on their tables, and nothing to do but amuse themselves. They wished to better their standard of living.

Standard of living. This term, as the preceding examples show, signifies the wants of a people and their ability to satisfy their wants. If people are barely able to exist, their standard is low and their lives are hard. But if they have comfortable and artistic homes, plenty of nourishing and appetizing food, suitable and pleasing wearing apparel, opportunities which they utilize for reading, education, religion, travel, music, and recreation, their standard is high and their living conditions are both pleasant and refined.

A WELL-FURNISHED ROOM

Every article in this room is the product of labor. Make a list of the different workers who probably contributed to its comforts and conveniences.

Studies of family income show that as the income grows, an increasingly large part of it goes for the comforts and refinements of life. This is, of course, just what we should expect, for, as we have seen, the necessities of the body are few and are soon satisfied. A family of five with an income of $2500 a year may be forced to spend $2200 for necessities and have only $300 for comforts and refinements; another family of five with an income of $3000 must pay the same

for necessities, but will have $800 left for better food, clothing, and housing, and for wider opportunities for recreation and education. The second family, therefore, is able to have a higher standard of living than the first.

What should the income of a family be to maintain a desirable standard of living? This is a hard question to answer. Family needs differ widely in different communities and at different times. An automobile may be a necessity for a physician and a luxury for a lawyer. Not long ago a telephone was looked upon as a novelty; in many homes it is now an essential part of household equipment. Luxuries, once we are accustomed to them, soon come to seem necessities.

Family income cannot be stated, therefore, in exact figures. Most thoughtful people believe, however, that the amount should be large enough (1) to provide the family with a sufficient amount of nourishing food and warm clothing, (2) to give them a comfortable home, (3) to enable them to meet without worry such rainy-day expenses as an occasional doctor's or dentist's bill, (4) to permit them to have a modest savings account and the protection of life-insurance and unemployment-insurance policies, (5) to enable them to help support the church and benevolent enterprises, and (6) to make possible for them educational opportunties and wholesome means of recreation. Certainly, nothing less than the foregoing can be regarded as a comfortable standard of living.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why is work necessary? Do people work only to satisfy their material wants? Why do millionaires work?

2. As used in this section what does "scarcity" mean? Does it mean the same as "rarity"? (Consult the dictionary.) Copy the following, drawing one line under the items that are scarce and two lines under those that are rare: salt, sugar, rubies, poison, flour, wood, gold, iron, cloth, shoes, headache.

3. Thomas A. Edison, the inventor, who usually spends from ten to eighteen hours a day in his workshops, said on one occasion, "I think I have never done a day's work in my life." What do you think he meant?

4. What is meant by "standard of living"? How can you tell whether a standard of living is high or low? Explain.

5. Mention two ways to improve one's standard of living.

Section II. What we do when we Work

A wilderness adventure. Not many years ago a man who wished to show that with no help from anyone he was able to feed, clothe, and protect himself went to live alone for several months in the woods of northern Maine. At the edge of the forest he left all his belongings, including his clothes, and started into the wilderness. In the description of his adventure he tells how at first he lived on wild berries and nuts, how he caught fish with his hands, how he clothed himself with the skins of animals, and how he built a shelter out of the bark and limbs of trees. He had to depend entirely, of course, on what he found in the woods and on his own skill and strength.

He soon discovered that the catching of fish with his hands was difficult and uncertain, that he needed a weapon to overcome the wild beasts, and that it was almost impossible to skin an animal with his bare fingers. Accordingly, out of a sharp-edged shell he fashioned a knife; from a stone he made a hammer; from a piece of flint and a long stick he shaped a spear; out of cedar-bark fibers he wove a fishing net; with sticks, stones, and roots he prepared snares and traps. Equipped with such tools and weapons, he found it much easier to satisfy his wants. In the end he not only supplied himself regularly with good food and warm clothing, but he also built a rude cabin, fitting it with numerous utensils and even with some of the comforts of life.

Direct and indirect methods of work. This story shows the way man's methods of work have developed during the centuries. Dependent at first solely on his wits and fingers and on materials supplied by nature, he relied, like other creatures, largely on wild fruits, plants, and animals for food and clothing, and on trees and caves for shelter. Almost from the beginning, however, his way of satisfying his wants differed in one important respect from that of the lower animals. Instead of going directly after food and drink, as they do, he found a roundabout method more successful.

CHANGING NATURE

Unlike birds, beasts, and insects, which accept nature much as they find it, man changes natural conditions to suit his needs, irrigating deserts, tunneling mountains, and draining swamp lands and marshes. To aid him in his work he has invented great machines like this trench-digger, which removes more earth in a day than a thousand men with picks and shovels could remove in an equal time.

A few examples will show the importance of the difference between man's method of satisfying his wants and the method used by birds and animals. The kingfisher swoops down and seizes a single trout with its talons; man first weaves a net and then catches fish by the hundreds. The wolf pursues its prey on foot, killing it with teeth and claws; man first fashions for himself an artificial tooth in the form of spear, arrow, or gun, and brings down a deer or buffalo at a distance. To quench their thirst, both bird and beast go to the lake or the river; we first make iron pipes, pumping stations, intakes, and then force the water into our houses.

In other words, man has multiplied enormously his ability as a worker by a roundabout method of work. He first makes tools — axes, knives, bows and arrows, factories, railways; he takes time to tame animals like the dog, sheep, horse, camel, and elephant; he gives thought and effort to the harnessing of water, wind, steam, and electricity. By using this indirect method of action he has added the advantages of capital to his own powers and to the resources furnished by nature.

A TIGER TRAP

Man has learned that his chances of living to tell the tale are better if he captures a tiger indirectly by means of a trap than if he attempts to bring the animal in with his bare hands. Can you figure out how this trap works? Here is a hint. The bait, which is placed inside the trap, is suspended from the left end of the horizontal pole at the top by a rope or chain. The right-hand end of the trap is supported by a prop. Now, work out the rest.

Work. Now what is work? What are natural resources? What is capital? In short, what is production? In order to understand what we do when we work, we must next consider the answers to these questions.

Work is human effort used to change the form or place of a commodity so as to increase its utility, or power to satisfy human wants. When we change the wood in a tree into chairs or desks, or store up ice in the winter for use in the summer, or ship oranges from Florida to Wisconsin, we are engaged in acts of production, because in such instances we increase the want-satisfying power of the materials we handle. The miner who brings iron ore out of the earth increases its ability to meet human wants; the smelter who changes the ore into pig iron adds to its want-satisfying

power; the roller who works the pig iron into steel still further enlarges its desirability; and the builder who makes the steel into bridges, skyscrapers, and railroads multiplies its value a thousand times. Miner, smelter, roller, transporter, and builder are all producers; by changing the place or form of the ore each adds to its power to satisfy the wants of man.

We refer to the creation of such utilities when we speak of creating wealth. We cannot, of course, make something out of nothing; but, as shown in the preceding paragraph, we can increase the want-satisfying power of a commodity by changing its form or location. When we are engaged in such activities or in performing services which in themselves satisfy human wants, we are at work.

Natural resources. In production man depends first of all on natural resources. The adventurer in the woods, as we noticed, met his needs in the beginning by using nature's gifts. He ate the nuts and fruits he found in the forest, clothed himself with the skins and furs of animals, and used for shelter hollow logs, trees, and caves. He took what nature gave.

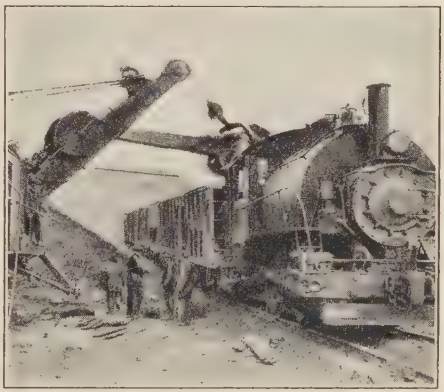
We too depend on nature; for, as noted above, we cannot make something out of nothing. We can only fit to our purpose what nature provides. Without natural resources, by which we mean everything that nature supplies for our use,— water, wind, soil, trees, minerals,— we could produce nothing.

Capital. The second factor in production is capital. Capital is anything produced by work when used to carry on additional work. Capital is wealth used to produce wealth.

The experimenter in the forest, as we observed, soon learned that capital was necessary. Finding it hard to skin an animal with his bare fingers, he made a rude knife. Discovering that it was difficult to catch fish with his hands, he wove a net of roots and fiber. Experiencing

trouble in his attempts to capture deer and elk, he prepared a spear. With knife, net, and spear — the products of his labor — he was better able to secure the food, clothing, and shelter he needed. His tools and weapons were his capital.

Capital is a vital factor in present-day industry. It embraces all machinery, buildings, and means of transportation used in producing wealth. It includes fences, barns, telegraph lines, steamboats, and railways. It consists of everything which man has made when used to produce something else. Capital, in a word, is man's tools.



LOADING IRON ORE

This huge steam shovel at the left is loading railroad cars with iron ore at the famous Mesabi iron range in Minnesota. The picture shows clearly the three factors in production. Can you point them out?

Labor. Many people look upon labor as a third factor in production. In every act of production, they say, labor, as well as nature and capital, plays a part. In the manufacture of tables, they argue, the workers furnish the labor; nature provides the trees; capital includes the woodmen's axes, the sawmill, and the railroads and wagons which bring the lumber to the builder.

Such a view of labor is useful in estimating costs in lumbering, mining, and manufacturing, but unfortunately it seems to put labor on the same level with nature and capital. The truth is that labor is above both.

Man uses nature and capital to satisfy his wants. They exist for him, not he for them. Labor is his effort, either of mind or body, to make them meet his wants more fully.

Labor is not something which can be bought and sold like bricks and laths. Such articles stand apart and are entirely separate from their owners. What becomes of them after a sale is of no concern to the seller. He does not care whether they are used for a pigpen or a palace. But labor cannot be separated from the person who furnishes it. The kind of work he does and the conditions under which he toils are both matters which are of deep concern to him.

Labor is a factor in production, then, in the sense that we could not produce without it. But labor is on an altogether different plane from natural resources and capital. Capital is merely the product of labor when used to produce wealth. If capital were all destroyed, it could in time be replaced, provided man's powers and the resources of nature remained unimpaired. But if labor were destroyed, production would end. The relation which labor bears to production is, in short, entirely different from that of either nature or capital. Nature and capital are material things; they exist for the service of mankind. Labor involves personality; it *is* mankind.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Was the adventurer in the forest in any way dependent upon other people? If in doubt re-read page 395.

2. Is going to school a roundabout way of satisfying one's wants? Explain. How can you tell whether an education will pay in dollars and cents?

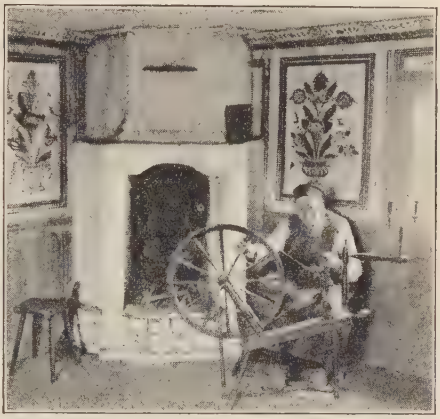
3. State whether the following have utility: sunlight, food, earrings, smallpox, water, steamboats. Define "utility." Give an example showing that man can create utilities. Tell about utilities that you have made.

4. Explain the difference between wealth and capital. Is capital always wealth? Is wealth always capital?

5. Why should labor not be viewed as a factor in production in the same sense as natural resources and capital?

Section III. How we Work

Early methods of work. Historians tell us that if the workmen who lived when Christ was born in Bethlehem could have returned to earth about 1760, they would have felt very much at home. They would have seen all about them tools and methods of labor with which they were familiar; for during the seventeen centuries following the birth of Christ there were few changes in the way people worked.



William H. Tolman

THE OLD SPINNING WHEEL

In the chimney corner of this quaint old room in Sweden the grandmother is spinning thread to make cloth for garments. In its day the spinning wheel was a marvelous invention, but it could spin only one thread at a time, and the task was laborious and cloth expensive.

Peasants still turned the sod with wooden plows, threshed their grain with clumsy flails, and took their produce to market in heavy, two-wheeled oxcarts. Cobblers still made shoes by hand, frequently selling them over the counters of their own little shops. Spinners and weavers still made thread and cloth on the old-fashioned distaff and hand loom. During the centuries few important changes had taken place in the world of work.

But if some Rip Van Winkle who fell asleep in 1760 could wake up today, he would feel like a stranger in a strange land. Instead of the sickle and scythe, he would behold the harvester; instead of the flail, he would gaze on the thresher; instead of oxcarts, he would see locomotives and motor trucks; instead of spinning wheel and hand loom, he would view with astonishment the ma-

chinery of the modern factory. For, as the result of what is usually called the Industrial Revolution, all such changes, as well as many others, have taken place during the last one hundred and seventy years. To that amazing movement, which explains the way we work today, let us now turn our attention.

Hargreaves and the spinning jenny. In 1760 there lived in England a poor weaver named James Hargreaves. As he entered his home one day, it is said, Hargreaves accidentally upset his wife's spinning wheel so that it lay on the floor with the spindle turning round and round. While he watched the revolving spindle, the idea suddenly occurred to him that he could invent a machine that, unlike the spinning wheel, which could make only one thread at a time, would spin several threads, thus saving a great deal of time and labor. After much effort he succeeded in inventing such a machine and, in honor of his wife, whose name was Jenny, called his invention the spinning jenny.

The new machine, so simple that a child could run it, would at first spin eight threads at a time. Before Hargreaves died he had so improved the invention that it would make one hundred and twenty threads. A modern spinning machine turns out as much thread in one day as twelve thousand workers could have done in the same time with the old-fashioned spinning wheel.

The coming of the factory. With the birth of the spinning jenny, rapid changes began to occur in the way men worked. The invention by Hargreaves was soon followed by other new labor-saving devices in other occupations and industries. Clumsy hand looms, which had been used for weaving, gave way to great power looms. Hand forges were displaced by blast furnaces. Water wheels and, finally, steam engines were introduced to operate the heavy machinery.

Since mill races and steam engines cost too much to be used to run a single loom or jenny, a large number of

machines were brought together into one building called a factory. Here spinners and weavers, unable to make cloth at home as cheaply as the mill could make it with machinery, left their firesides and went to work for a daily wage. The coming of the factory, the increase in the use of capital,

THE MODERN FACTORY

The proverbial activity of a beehive has long since been eclipsed by the tumultuous energy of the modern factory. Smoking stacks, clanging cars, shrieking whistles, and whirring machines make a fitting background for the labors of thousands of busy men.

and the introduction on a large scale of the wage system started the great problem of capital and labor, which we shall consider in a later chapter.

Specializing of labor. In the factory new machines were invented to do different parts of the work. For example, in a modern factory eighteen machines are used in making a pin; over one hundred in turning out a pair of shoes; more than three hundred in producing a watch.

Naturally no one laborer works on all the processes. Instead, each man concentrates on one part of the job, doing nothing but his own specialized task, which usually consists of feeding material into a machine. As a result, no worker makes an entire watch, shoe, or needle, as in the days of our ancestors. On the contrary, labor is so specialized that eighteen, one hundred, and, occasionally, even three hundred different persons have a hand in the making of a single finished product.

Increasing the product. The Industrial Revolution, with its factory, machinery, and specialization of labor, greatly increased the output of manufactured goods. Under the old system of handwork one person could make fifty pins a day; now mere girls aided by machinery turn out half a million pins a day for each worker. An old-time cobbler could make two pairs of shoes a day; modern workmen with machinery manufacture shoes at the rate of five hundred pairs a day for each employee. The machines in our country alone, it is said, do a greater amount of work than could be done under the old system if every man, woman, and child in the United States had thirty slaves working for him from sunrise to sunset every day in the year.

Changing business organization. The Industrial Revolution also caused a great change in the organization of business. Before the coming of the factory a skilled workman usually owned the materials he used and the tools or capital he worked with, while his own muscles and brain generally supplied the energy and intellect for the business.

But with the bringing of hundreds of costly machines under a single roof and with the need for enormous quantities of supplies and thousands of laborers, the simple business organization of early days became impossible. Greater ability than most men possessed was needed to make the enterprise a success; more money than one person owned was required to buy the land, buildings, and

WHEN COAL GOES TO SEA

The chief feature of the Industrial Revolution was a change from handwork to machine work. In the old days men carried sacks of coal on board ship upon their backs; at the present time modern coal piers are equipped with giant hoisting machines which lift coal cars and empty them bodily into the hold of a vessel. At the left a loaded car is being pushed up the incline to the hoisting machine; in the center the empty cars are returning to the main track.

equipment necessary for the industry; and of course many workers were needed to operate the machines themselves. For such reasons partnerships and corporations gradually came into general use.

The partnership. Partnerships and corporations can best be understood through examples. Suppose two men, Jones and Brown, are each engaged in the making of flour. Because of some new invention, more money than either man has available is needed to reëquip their mills. Accordingly the two decide to form a partnership. A contract in the form required by law is drawn up, in which are stated the amount of capital each man is to furnish, the share of profits he is to receive or the losses he is to bear, and the work he is to do.

The partnership form of organization enables men to obtain funds to carry on an enterprise which they could not undertake alone and, in addition, promotes their success by making it possible for each partner to specialize in that part of the undertaking which most interests him. But if the firm is unable to pay its debts, the creditors may sue the members individually to secure payment, and if either member dies, the business must either be reorganized or cease to exist. A partnership forces the members, therefore, to risk their entire property in the undertaking and, at the same time, makes the business depend on so uncertain a matter as a man's life. The foregoing disadvantages, to be sure, exist chiefly in unlimited partnerships and may be avoided in part in limited partnerships.

The corporation. A realization of the defects of the partnership arrangement, as well as a need for more money to carry on their rapidly growing business, leads Jones and Brown, let us suppose, to reorganize as a corporation under the name Jones and Brown Flour Company. In accordance with the law they obtain a charter in which are stated the capital, the nature of the business, and the powers of the corporation.

The capital of a corporation is represented by certificates of stock, called shares, which usually have a face value of $100 each. After Jones and Brown take for themselves as many shares as they think they can afford to carry, they offer the remainder for sale to the public. The shares are easily sold, we will suppose, because (1) the reputation of Jones and Brown as successful business men is high, (2) the shares are sold for only $100 each, and (3) the buyers usually risk only the money they invest. The shareholders now elect officers and a board of directors to manage the business, each shareholder having the power to cast as many votes as he has shares of stock. He also receives profits or bears losses in proportion to the stock he owns.

The corporation form of organization makes possible the raising of large sums of money and at the same time places the business on a more lasting foundation than does a partnership, since the enterprise no longer depends on the life of one person. On the other hand, the efficiency and personal interest which usually exist in partnerships are often much less evident in corporations.

The corporation has proved so well-suited to the needs of business that it has been adopted in practically all industries, nine tenths of our railroads, steel mills, steamboat lines, and packing houses being organized today as corporations. Since, as a rule, anyone may buy shares of stock through a dealer in securities, the owners of most corporations run up into hundreds and even thousands. Some of our railroads, it is said, are the property of more than one hundred thousand people, while the stockholders of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company number almost half a million.

So great is the power of such organizations, especially since they began to form combinations with one another, that both the states and the nation have found it necessary to lay down the conditions on which huge corporations (often called trusts or combines) may be formed and the

regulations under which they may do business. Such efforts have not been entirely successful, and the control of corporations, and combinations of corporations, is today a most difficult problem.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention three important differences between the way people work in our times and the way they worked two hundred years ago.

2. What was the Industrial Revolution? Explain its chief results.

3. What kinds of business organization exist in your community? Give an example of each kind.

4. State the advantages and disadvantages of a partnership; of a corporation.

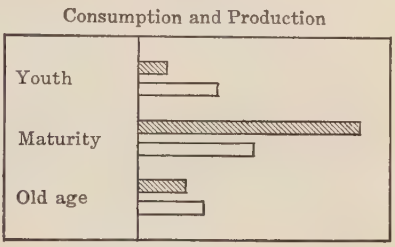
5. Look up the word "corporation" in the index of your American history and report on three passages describing the efforts of the government to regulate corporations. Would it be wise to abolish corporations? Give reasons.

6. *Topics for volunteer reports:* Tell about the life and work of one of the following inventors: Richard Arkwright, Samuel Crompton, Edmund Cartwright, James Watt, Eli Whitney, Robert Fulton, George Stephenson.

Section IV. Doing your Share

Three life stages. From the standpoint of production most of us pass through three stages in life, as shown in the diagram on the following page. The first stage is childhood and youth — the period of preparation; the second is maturity — the period of activity; the third is old age — the period of leisure. During all three stages we have wants that can be satisfied only by the products of labor. In but one — the second — do we ordinarily produce more than we consume; during the other two we usually consume more than we produce.

Our value to the community. It is apparent, of course, that if during our entire lifetime we produce less than we consume, the community is poorer than if we had never lived. If we produce as much as we consume, no more and no less, our existence has no effect on the well-being of the community. But if we produce more than we consume, we leave society richer than we found it; for we not only pull our own weight in the boat, but lessen the burden for someone else. By so doing we prove ourselves desirable members of the group, for we pay in usefulness for the space we occupy.



THE THREE LIFE STAGES

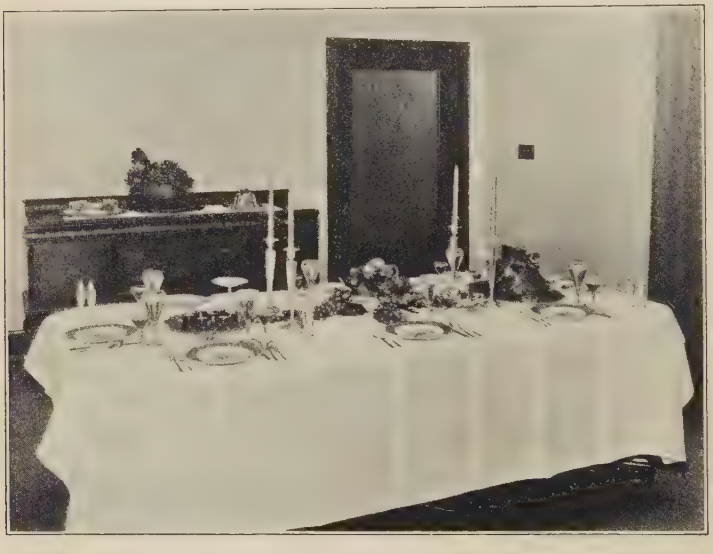
The three bars in the drawing stand for the three life stages; the black bar in each indicates the wealth produced during that stage, the unshaded bar shows the wealth consumed during that stage. Draw two bars showing in correct proportion your present consumption and production.

Obligations of boys and girls. Now what are your obligations in the world of work? As a boy or girl you cannot devote your time and energy to production without harming both the community and yourself. To go to work when you should be in school is to lessen your power to produce in later life and, in addition, is to deprive yourself of opportunities and advantages that are rightfully yours. But there are ways, nevertheless, in which you can be useful during school days. Some of these are mentioned below.

1. *Avoid waste.* The first way to help is to avoid waste in your home, school, and community. Since this subject is discussed in the next chapter, it is sufficient here to point out that wastefulness destroys the products of labor, lessens wealth, lowers the standard of living, and injures the community. Avoid waste.

2. *Help in home tasks.* In the next place, you can do a

part of the work in your own home. You can lessen home tasks by cleaning your shoes before entering, by hanging up your coat and hat, by putting away your belongings, and by keeping your own room neat and orderly. In addition, you can help in such household chores as making



AN ATTRACTIVE TABLE

Attractive meals add much to the happiness of the home. Girls can help their mothers by studying artistic ways to set the table and by learning to cook a few appetizing dishes with which to add variety to the menus.

the beds, sweeping and dusting the rooms, washing the dishes, preparing the meals, and going on errands. Help in home tasks.

3. *Fit yourself for work.* This is your main job, so far as work is concerned. To prepare yourself adequately for the future, your first duty is to take care of your health: secure plenty of pure air, outdoor exercise, and sleep. In the second place, get your lessons: be satisfied with nothing less than mastery. In the third place, learn about the work

of the world: find out what people do and what needs doing; observe work activities in your own community. Finally, find the work you would like to do and fit yourself for it: develop an interest in some occupation or in several occupations; find the qualities that are necessary for success; study your own traits, your elements of strength, your sources of weakness; cultivate qualities you lack. Fit yourself for work.

A TENNIS CHAMPION

We all want to add our bit of energy to the world's work. To do this we must keep ourselves in top form, as does Helen Wills or anyone else who is able to excel in a special line of activity.

Earning a living. The community owes no one a living. On the contrary, every person owes service to the community. Were it not so, each generation would leave the world poorer for the generation following. Everyone has the duty, and also the privilege, of earning a living. In the words of Roosevelt:

> The first requisite of a good citizen in this republic of ours is that he shall be able and willing to pull his own weight; that he shall not be a mere passenger, but shall do his share in the work that each generation of us finds ready to hand.

Summary. We must work, first of all, because we can satisfy our wants in no other way; with one or two exceptions, goods having want-satisfying power are scarce and can be produced only by labor. We must work, in the second place, in order to raise our standards of living and

to attain goals that can be reached through effort alone. In work we use natural resources and capital. Natural resources include all gifts of nature; capital embraces everything resulting from labor when used in further production.

Our present methods of work are due largely to the Industrial Revolution, a change from the domestic system

A TRYOUT CLASS

Nowadays many schools offer pre-vocational courses in which pupils may try out different kinds of work in order to discover their interests and aptitudes. The boys in this carpenter class are learning not only how to use tools but whether such an occupation appeals to them.

to the factory system of industry. The most important results of the Industrial Revolution have been (1) an increased use of capital, (2) the establishment of the wage system, (3) specialization of labor, (4) an enormous increase in production, (5) extension of the partnership and the corporation, and (6) the rise of the problem of capital and labor.

As good citizens we all have obligations in the world of work. Unless we produce more than we consume, we are of

no benefit, and perhaps of some harm, to the community. From this point of view the main duty of boys and girls is (1) to avoid waste, (2) to help in home tasks, and (3) to get ready for future usefulness by forming proper health habits, by doing school work with thoroughness and dispatch, by becoming acquainted with industrial activities, and by preparing thoroughly for the work of life. The community owes no one a living, but it offers to all an opportunity to earn a living.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Define the terms "producer" and "consumer," as used in this chapter. Give several examples that show that you are a producer at the present time. Mention four ways in which you are a consumer.

2. Point out the chief differences in the methods used by your father and your great-grandfather in earning a living.

3. Explain the following statement: "The community owes no one a living."

4. *Library work for volunteers:*

a. Tell about the wants of a primitive tribe such as the Eskimos, Tahitians, Arabs, or Tibetans. For information see back numbers of the *National Geographic Magazine* and the book list (pp. 414–415).

b. Compare the standard of living of the Pilgrim Fathers, the Southern planters just before the Civil War, and the factory workers in England following the Industrial Revolution. Secure information in histories of the United States and of England and from the book list (pp. 414–415).

THINGS TO DO

1. Visit a manufacturing establishment in your community. Count the number and note the character of the machines and processes that play a part in making the product. Be sure to trace the raw material from its entrance into the plant to its final form.

2. Write a short composition on one of the following subjects: "How I Earned my First Dollar"; "The Most Skillful Workman I ever Saw"; "Specialization of Labor in ——" (take an industry in your community); "The Most Unusual Industry in our Community."

3. Ask your father what his income was five years ago. Then ask him to indicate, either in dollars or in percentage of the total, his expenditures under the following three divisions: (1) food, clothing, fuel, lighting, taxes, rent (if he owns his home, count taxes, repairs, fire insurance, and interest on the value of the property as "rent"); (2) education, recreation, church, benevolences; (3) savings, investments, and insurance. Obtain similar information about his income and expenses for last year. Determine whether your standard of living has risen or fallen during the five years.

4. List six occupations that appeal to you, indicating by a cross (×) the three that are most attractive. List six occupations that are uninviting, marking with a cross (×) the three that you think you would find most unpleasant. Now contrast the attractive features in the occupations you like with the unattractive features in those you dislike. Be prepared to tell the class any benefit you have received from working out this exercise.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. * "Work," H. van Dyke, *The Worker and his Work*, 36.
2. "The Power Plant," B. Braley, *ibid.*, 176–177.
3. "The Navajo Blanket," C. F. Lummis, *ibid.*, 262–267.
4. "The Dynamite Worker," *Careers of Danger and Daring*, 348–376.
5. "The Diary of a Forty-niner," C. L. Canfield, *America's Message*, 44–52.
6. * "I hear America Singing," W. Whitman, *ibid.*, 147.
7. "Round-up on a Cattle Range," W. M. Thayer, *In Our Times*, 1–6.
8. * "Woman's Share in Primitive Culture," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 30–39.
9. "How Early Man tamed Fire," *ibid.*, 49–51.
10. "Your Capital," *Fiber and Finish*, 33–42.
11. "The Most Useful of All Domestic Animals," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, II, 662–663.

12. "Stocks and Bonds and what they Mean," *ibid.*, VIII, 3358–3360.
13. * "Tools, the Builders of Civilization," *ibid.*, VIII, 3514–3516.
14. "How Jamie Watt's Tea-kettle turned into a Steam Engine," *ibid.*, IX, 3704–3705.
15. "Work and the Worker," *Readings in Community Life*, Part IV, section 1.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. *Getting a Living*, by J. Lynn Barnard. Franklin.
2. *Work-a-day Heroes*, by Chelsea C. Fraser. Crowell.
3. *From Deep Woods to Civilization*, by Charles A. Eastman. Little.
4. *America at Work*, by Joseph Husband. Houghton.
5. * *Alone in the Wilderness*, by Joseph Knowles. Small.
6. * *Marooned in the Forest*, by Alpheus H. Verrill. Harper.
7. *How Man conquered Nature*, by Minnie J. Reynolds. Macmillan.
8. *Man and his Conquest of Nature*, by Marion I. Newbigin. Black.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. * *Captains Courageous*, by Rudyard Kipling. Doubleday.
2. *A Successful Venture*, by Ellen D. Deland. Wilde.
3. *The Gaunt Gray Wolf*, by Dillon Wallace. Grosset.
4. *The Mysterious Island*, by Jules Verne. Scribner.
5. * *Silas Marner*, by George Eliot. Ginn.
6. * *The Long Journey: Fire and Ice*, by Johannes V. Jensen. Knopf.
7. *The Forest Castaways*, by F. O. Bartlett. Century.
8. *Toilers of the Sea*, by Victor Hugo. Burt.
9. *Wilderness Castaways*, by Dillon Wallace. McClurg.
10. *Og — Son of Fire*, by Irving Crump. Dodd.
11. *Two Legs*, by Carl Ewald. Scribner.
12. *In the Morning of Time*, by Charles G. D. Roberts. Stokes.
13. * *A Son of the Ages*, by Stanley Waterloo. Doubleday.
14. *Romance of Labor*, by Frances D. Twombly and John C. Dana. Macmillan.

CHAPTER XX

SAVING AND THRIVING

It is not what is earned but what is saved which measures the difference between success and failure. — CALVIN COOLIDGE

Conservation means using all the resources of the nation for the greatest good of the largest number for the longest time. — GIFFORD PINCHOT

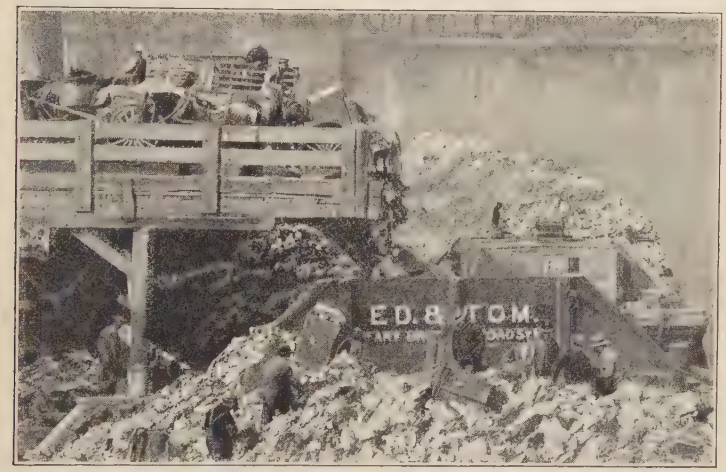
SECTION I. WHY WE NEED TO SAVE

Wasteful America. We are the most wasteful people on earth. For every ton of coal burned in our factories, stores, and houses we send another ton up the chimney in smoke and soot, or leave it in the mine in such shape that we can never remove it. The amount of natural gas lost through leaks at the well and carelessness in the home is greater than the total supply of artificial gas made in all the cities in our country. The energy which we permit to go to waste through undeveloped water power is more than enough to light every electric lamp and run every train and factory in the United States.

Our wastefulness of natural resources is equaled by our wastefulness in business enterprises. Present ways of handling the cotton crop cause an annual loss of $50,000,000. Defective shipping methods ruin in a single year one hundred thousand carloads of farm produce. In New York City alone, it is said, more than seven million pounds of fruit and over three million pounds of vegetables are received in such condition that they must be dumped into the sea. A single hotel spends $60,000 a year to replace broken dishes, glassware, and crockery.

Similar wastefulness often appears in our homes and in our daily lives. American housewives, we are told, throw

enough food into their garbage pails every year to feed over a hundred million people. Farmers constantly ruin valuable machinery by letting it stand outdoors in all kinds of weather. Boys and girls frequently tear their clothes, destroy their toys, and break furniture, dishes, and windows by rough and careless play. Waste also appears in the throwing away of half-used pencils, the needless burning of



WASTE OF A BIG CITY

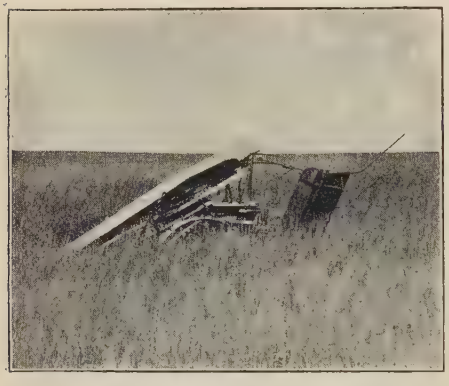
Some mathematicians assert that a good-sized town could live on what New York throws away. This street-cleaning dump gives an idea of the vast amount of refuse that is carted off every day and emptied into barges to be carried out to sea.

gas and electricity, aimless scribbling in books and upon good writing paper, and the purchase of trinkets and playthings of which one tires almost as soon as they are bought.

Basic reason for economy. But why should we avoid waste? Why ought we to save? Why should we be economical?

The basic answer to such questions was given in the preceding chapter. We should save because with one or two exceptions goods and services that will gratify our wants are scarce. Wastefulness reduces our supply without giving us any adequate return in want satisfaction.

An example will help to explain the point. We do not need to be saving in the use of air and daylight, because nature provides us with unlimited supplies of both. You never heard anyone say, "Be careful. Don't breathe so deeply. Don't take so much air. Go slow on the daylight. Be economical in your use of sunbeams." No matter how much air and sunlight we use, the supply remaining seems just as large.



NEGLECT OF FARM IMPLEMENTS

This reaper has been left out in the field exposed to the weather for almost a year. The result is that a new machine will soon be necessary, when the old one might have given years of service had it been protected from rust and weather.

But it is very different with labor, capital, and almost all our natural resources. Here we find a stock that is limited. We need to be economical in using each, therefore, if we would avoid exhaustion of the supply and consequent disaster.

Need for conserving natural resources. Our natural resources may for convenience be considered under four heads: minerals, water, forests, and land. The need for conservation, as economy in the use of natural resources is called, may be illustrated by the case of coal, our chief mineral fuel, and wood, our chief building material.

Our country, it is said, contains more coal than the rest of the world put together. The supply is enormous but limited. If our consumption of coal continues to increase in the future as in recent years, our deposits, according to Gifford Pinchot, one of the authorities on the subject, will be exhausted in less than two hundred years. Later investigations indicate that our reserve stores are greater

than Mr. Pinchot thought, but the discovery should not blind us to the necessity for economy.

An even greater need for conservation appears in our forests. Their rapid exhaustion affects not only our supply of lumber but also our streams of water and our soil. When it rains, the water flows quickly away in floods if

A DESTROYING FLOOD

Dwellings, bridges, and telegraph lines went down before this flood in New England. Hundreds of people lost their lives, and the property damage ran into the millions.

nothing retains it. When there is vegetation, however, the water is held as by a sponge and therefore finds its way slowly to the sea. Forests are the best kind of vegetation to retain moisture. They prevent snow banks from melting for months after the end of winter. They are especially desirable in the mountains, where many important rivers have their sources; for if the snow is protected from the sun, the streams will have a constant supply of water the

year round. But when hills or mountains are deforested, the snow melts quickly in the spring; and the water from the melted snow and the rainfall rushes down the slopes, carries the soil away, makes the high lands a waste, and brings disaster to the people in the valleys. Such was the main cause of the destructive Mississippi flood of 1927.

When we recall that soil is man's chief natural resource and that five hundred years are required to make a single inch of it, we can appreciate the loss involved in the millions of tons carried away by floods. And when we remember that deforestation is one of the chief causes of floods and that we are cutting down trees four times as rapidly as they grow, we have no trouble in understanding the words of Nature as given in the following grim stanza from Robert M. Reese's poem "The Spendthrift":

My squandered forests, hacked and hewed,
  Are gone; my rivers fail;
My stricken hillsides, stark and nude,
  Stand shivering in the gale.
Down to the sea my teeming soil
  In yellow torrents goes;
The guerdon of the farmer's toil
  With each year lesser grows.

Capital and savings. All capital comes from saving. If we consume all we produce, nothing is left to aid further production. Only as we put aside a portion of what we earn do savings accumulate. By such action alone are we able to enjoy the advantages of capital.

Suppose, for example, that two boys, Tom and Harry, secure newspaper routes at the same time. At first each boy earns five dollars a week from his route. Tom spends his earnings in having a good time; Harry, on the other hand, denies himself some pleasures and puts aside four dollars every week until he has saved enough to buy a bicycle. With his bicycle, or capital, Harry is able to deliver twice as many papers as he could on foot. As a

result he increases his income to ten dollars a week; that is, with the help of his capital, which he secured by saving, he doubles his earning power.

Of course, if we do not take care of capital, we defeat the main purpose of saving. If Harry leaves his bicycle out of doors in the rain or if he fails to oil the bearings properly, rust and wear will soon destroy the machine. A similar result follows whenever we neglect or misuse tools, supplies, or furnishings of any kind, whether they belong to us or to someone else. Capital wasted is capital lost.

Child labor and conservation. Conservation is needed not only with natural resources and capital but also with labor. This is especially true of the employment of boys and girls.

The coming of the factory threw many men out of work. Boys and girls could run the new machines as well as men and sometimes better, and they would work for less pay. The result was the employment of children in mills and factories. For years hours of toil were long. In England, at the beginning of the last century, boys and girls were forced to work from twelve to fourteen hours a day; women from fourteen to sixteen. Conditions were equally bad in America. In Connecticut and New Jersey it was customary as late as 1832 to require employees to be at their tasks by half-past four in the morning and to continue work until sunset or later.

Although such conditions have been remedied in many respects, child labor is still a serious problem. According to the last national census there are in the United States more than a million boys and girls between ten and fifteen years of age engaged in gainful occupations. Their hours of toil for the most part are from eight to eleven a day. They are employed as bootblacks, teamsters, miners, clerks, janitors, farm hands, bell boys, messengers, chambermaids, and laborers. In addition, thousands of young children toil in tenement houses, making artificial flowers, sewing babies' caps, and embroidering silk stockings.

Child labor is wasteful. It interferes seriously with the education of children. It reduces their efficiency in later years. It stunts their growth, weakens their health, and makes them easy victims of disease. Child labor does not pay. It endangers the lives and futures of boys and girls and seriously menaces the community itself.

CHILDREN MAKING ARTIFICIAL FLOWERS

Thousands of little folks are forced to toil long weary hours in order to eke out the family income. Child labor is wasteful, because it injures the health of children, interferes with their schooling, and lessens their earning power in later years.

Conservation of adult workers. But wastefulness in labor is not limited to children; it appears also among adults, especially in regard to wages and unemployment.

Recent investigations indicate that in most parts of the country more than one half of employed women receive less than a living wage. In the District of Columbia, for example, at a time when government officials declared that a wage of at least sixteen dollars a week was necessary to live decently, investigators found that two thirds of the women employed in the printing and publishing industries located in the District were paid less than that amount; that almost one half of those who worked in hotels and restaurants received less than that figure; that more than three fourths of the women in mercantile establishments were given less than the sum named; and that in the five-and-ten-cent stores only one woman out of twenty was paid as much as the minimum named by the

officials. Congress immediately passed a law fixing the lowest wages that could be legally paid in given industries, but in the year 1923 the act was declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court on the ground that the law violated freedom of contract and that it was unnecessary since women had received the right to vote.

Brown Brothers

OUT OF WORK

Without jobs, food, or money these men are seeking refuge in a home for the unemployed. Here they find shelter and will be given a cup of coffee and something to eat. Unemployment wastes human resources besides causing suffering and sometimes leading to crime.

Unemployment, another great source of waste, costs us from one to two billion dollars annually. Although the number of workers without jobs varies widely at different times, the figures ordinarily range from 1,500,000 to 3,000,000. Out of every one hundred workers three are usually out of work all the time, thirty-seven lack employment part of the time, and the remaining sixty have regular

work most of the time. Inability to secure employment causes great suffering and is a heavy loss to the country.

Meaning of saving and thrift. To many people the words "saving," "thrift," and "conservation" are unpleasant, suggesting stinginess and even miserliness. But such is not their true meaning. When rightly understood, these words indicate merely the wise use of our possessions and the careful avoidance of waste. As applied to our natural resources, for example, the word "conservation" should convey the idea of getting the most out of our rivers, forests, minerals, and soil, of using them to the fullest extent, of putting what nature has given us to the most complete service.

Conservation is needed, then, to enable us to secure the greatest benefits from nature's gifts. The word should suggest opposition to all kinds of wastefulness, because wastefulness deprives us of natural advantages and thus lowers our standard of living. Instead of making life less comfortable by taking away the full use of our resources, conservation would but add to our happiness by preventing waste of labor, capital, and nature's gifts. When so viewed, conservation is wisdom, thrift is common sense, saving is thriving.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention instances of waste in the schools, churches, or government of your community. In your opinion, what is the chief cause of wastefulness? What is the chief remedy?

2. Explain the fundamental reason for saving. Should we be economical in our use of water? bread? paper? Give reasons.

3. "All capital comes from saving." Give an example from your own experience of the truth of the preceding quotation. How does wastefulness affect the cost of production?

4. How does child labor hurt the community? Do opponents of child labor object to all work by children? Explain.

5. Mention two ways in which unemployment injures the nation. Is there any unemployment in your neighborhood? How can you find out?

Section II. How the Government Helps

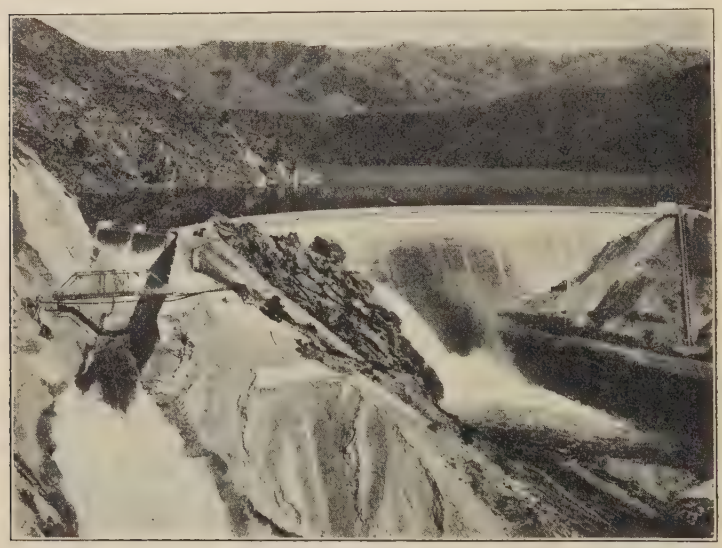
Early wastefulness. It is natural that the early settlers in America should have wasted nature's gifts. To them the forests were boundless, the minerals unlimited, the land inexhaustible. Here, it seemed, were countless herds of buffalo and deer; multitudes of wild geese, turkeys, and pigeons; enormous deposits of coal, copper, iron, lead, and zinc.

In the midst of such abundance no one thought of saving for the morrow. To the pioneers, indeed, the forests were at times an actual danger; in many parts of the country settlers could obtain a patch of ground for farming or grazing only by destroying the trees that covered the earth. At a much later day the immediate profits to be gained from timber, turpentine, and potash caused lumber companies to slaughter trees on an enormous scale. The result of such destruction has been to reduce the forested area of the United States to less than half its original extent and to cause a rapid increase in the price of lumber. Awakened by the danger of a complete exhaustion of timber resources, people have in recent years begun to realize the importance of conservation.

The conservation movement. In 1891 Congress authorized the president to withdraw from sale and to establish as forest reserves any government lands bearing timber. Presidents Harrison, Cleveland, and McKinley began the creation of such reserves, while Gifford Pinchot as Chief Forester, together with his assistants, stimulated public interest in the movement. At the same time a number of states also created forest reserves and established forestry commissions to care for them.

Several years later (1908) President Roosevelt, who had greatly enlarged the area of the national forests, invited the governors of the states and territories to a conference in Washington to consider the conservation problem in

relation to the entire country. The conference was followed by the creation of a National Conservation Commission composed of fifty men prominent in governmental, industrial, and scientific work. The publications of the Commission gave the United States the first scientific account of its natural resources possessed by any country in the world.



THE HIGHEST IRRIGATION DAM IN THE WORLD

The Arrowrock Dam, near Boisé, Idaho, rears its massive masonry three hundred and forty-nine feet above the bed of the river below. At the right can be seen a log conveyor and the cottages of the operators, and at the left the spillway which conveys the water to the lands which are to be irrigated.

The conservation movement, thus begun, has been supported with enthusiasm by people in all parts of the country. A number of states have established conservation commissions and have passed laws to prevent the waste of natural gas, petroleum, and timber. The national government has increased its forested areas, improved its forestry service, set aside as reserves mineral lands and water-

power sites, and engaged in the reclaiming of vast tracts of arid and swamp lands. Newspapers, magazines, and lecturers have helped the movement by emphasizing the importance of safeguarding the heritage of the future.

But conservation has also met strong hostility in certain quarters. Individuals and corporations eager to secure

IRRIGATED ORANGE ORCHARD

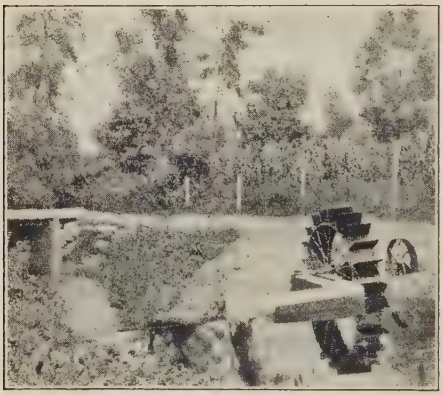
Conducted from the reservoir in canals and supply ditches, the water is finally distributed through the fields and orchards in long furrows or by a flooding process. Half a million people now live on farms irrigated by Federal works, and the crops grown on such lands are worth more than $100,000,000 a year.

quick profits by gaining control of power sites, mineral deposits, and forest lands have opposed all efforts to reserve such resources for the public. In spite of occasional setbacks, however, progress has been made.

Child labor. Our governments have not limited their activities to the conservation of natural resources, but have also given attention to the saving of human resources —

boys and girls, men and women. Unfortunately their efforts in such matters have been marked with less energy and success than their work in establishing forests and reclaiming deserts.

At first, our governments did nothing to remedy the conditions brought on by the factory. With the passing of years, however, improvements have gradually come, some from the voluntary action of employers and some from legislation. The greater part of the legislation has been the work of state legislatures, since the power over most matters connected with labor belongs, under our Constitution, to the states. However, the national government has not been neglecting this subject. In several respects it has, in fact, taken the lead. For example, it was the first to establish the ten-hour working day for government employees. It has also made repeated efforts to end child labor.



WATER POWER FOR THE FARM

The resourceful owner of this farm has harnessed the current of the stream which runs through his land and provided himself with power to operate his machinery. Name ways in which water power can be used on a farm.

The first attempt of Congress to control child labor was a law directly forbidding the employment of children. The Supreme Court declared the act unconstitutional on the ground that the power to regulate labor in the states belonged to the states alone. Congress next passed a law taxing the products of child labor, hoping thereby to make such labor unprofitable to employers. When the Supreme Court declared this act also null and void, Congress sub-

mitted to the states a constitutional amendment giving the national government power "to limit, regulate, and prohibit the labor of persons under eighteen years of age." Since more than one fourth of the states have rejected the amendment, the measure is lost unless some of the states reverse their decisions.

The defeat of the amendment leaves the states with complete control over child labor. As pointed out in the first section, most states have failed to establish suitable safeguards for children. In thirty-two states children under sixteen are permitted to work at night. In twelve states children under sixteen may labor from nine to eleven hours a day. In thirty-five states children fourteen years old may engage in dangerous employment. Such conditions threaten both the present and future welfare of the country.

Hours of labor. Legislation requiring safety appliances and sanitary conditions in places of employment is common in most states. In addition, many states have laws limiting the working hours of women and, in some cases, of men. The hours of work permitted by the laws are from eight to ten a day for not more than six days of the week. At first the courts declared such laws unconstitutional as violations of the right of freedom of contract. But during late years the regulations, although they have not always been enforced, have been upheld by the courts. Nonenforcement has usually been owing to the failure of the state and local governments to provide a sufficient number of inspectors.

Minimum-wage laws. A minimum-wage law is one providing for the establishment, usually by a board, of the lowest wage which may be paid in specified industries. During the last twenty years such laws have been passed in about one third of the states, but the attempt of Congress to establish a minimum-wage law in the District of Columbia, as pointed out on pages 36–37, met defeat in the United States Supreme Court when a test case was appealed to that body.

State minimum-wage laws have been in operation too short a time to justify final conclusions as to their value. They appear to have raised wages not only in the industries directly affected but also in other lines of employment. In addition, the laws have apparently caused a reduction in hours of labor even in occupations which the law does not authorize the board to regulate. The legislation seems, moreover, to have raised standards of living. Opinions differ concerning the desirability of minimum-wage laws. Many workers oppose such legislation, fearing that it will tend to lower all wages to the level fixed by the law. Many employers also object, fearing that such measures will force the payment of higher wages than employees earn. The question is still an open one.

Unemployment. Down to the present time our governments have done very little to prevent the waste and suffering caused by unemployment. Half the states and a number of cities, it is true, have established public-employment bureaus to bring employers and unemployed workers together, but, with few exceptions, such agencies have not proved effective. The national government also has attempted through the use of the post office to spread information about opportunities for work, but with no great success.

In Europe a number of countries have tried to solve the problem by insuring workers against unemployment. The insurance plans usually provide that workers, employers, and the government contribute to a fund from which people out of jobs, because of their inability to secure employment, may draw benefits in the form of weekly payments.

Efforts to establish compulsory unemployment insurance in our country have so far failed. The chief objections to the proposal are (1) that the experiments in Europe have not succeeded; (2) that the plan does not remove the causes of unemployment; (3) that the system develops idleness and pauperism; (4) that the arrangement is

unsound from the viewpoint of production; and (5) that the plan increases the burden of taxation. No problem of conservation is more complicated than the problem of unemployment.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. In what ways does the government of your community help to conserve natural resources? Are there any ways in which it seems to waste nature's gifts? Explain.

2. Tell about your nearest forest reserve — its origin, area, use, and means of protection. What regions are best suited for forests? Why?

3. What waste lands in your locality have been reclaimed? Describe the methods used to reclaim such areas. Mention other waste lands that might be reclaimed.

4. What is meant by conservation of human resources? Mention human resources that need conserving in your community.

5. Why is child labor wasteful? Are there any reasons for children's not working at night that do not apply with equal force to adults? Explain.

6. What is freedom of contract? Is a worker ordinarily as free as an employer in entering into a contract for employment? Explain. Find the clause in the national Constitution that refers to freedom of contract (see pages 717–733).

7. *Reports for volunteers:*
   a. Early buffalo herds and their extinction.
   b. The destruction of the passenger pigeon.
   c. The wasting of natural gas.
   d. Protection of game and fish in our state.

Section III. What we can Do

Help to save natural resources. Everyone can help to save natural resources by preventing waste and by repairing losses. Every time you turn off a gas jet or an electric lamp which no one is using you prevent waste. Whenever you build a bird house or plant a tree you help to repair loss.

During recent years Boy Scouts have played an important part in restoring and preserving our natural resources in many parts of the country. In a single year in New York the Scouts planted 85,000 trees. In Pennsylvania they set out almost 45,000 trees. In Utah they planted thousands of trees, flowers, vines, and shrubs. In several states they helped to patrol the woods, to destroy harmful insects, to build bird houses, and to fight forest fires.

A MONUMENT TO WASTE

This giant refuse-burner consumed over a million dollars' worth of material which was considered waste before it was discovered that the refuse could be used to make paper. (By courtesy of the *Outlook*.)

Many industrial establishments also have helped to conserve nature's gifts to their own advantage as well as to the advantage of the nation. Years ago packing plants generally threw away the bones, hoofs, and hair of the hogs they slaughtered; today it is said they waste nothing but the squeal. Lumber companies formerly burned as refuse the slabs, tree-tops, shavings, and sawdust; now up-to-date sawmills use such materials for paper and wood pulp. As a monument to the change which is taking place, there stands in Bogalusa, Louisiana, a gigantic refuse-burner, no longer used, on which is the following inscription:

Bogalusa plant of Great Southern Lumber Company. Refuse-burner. Born October 1, 1908, died July 4, 1924. Every day during my life of sixteen years I consumed daily 560 cords of waste

material, or a total of 2,688,000 cords. I cost $75,000, but my fire has destroyed $1,344,000 worth of what was formerly considered waste. The complete utilization of the saw-mill refuse in the manufacture of paper has my fire forever extinguished.

Form the habit of saving. To be saving, as we have seen, does not mean to be stingy, close-fisted, or small. Saving

LEARNING TO SAVE

These girls and boys are learning to save in a business-like way. Their school bank is conducted along commercial lines and is directed by the treasurer of one of the local banks. How does your school encourage systematic saving?

means merely to live below one's income, no matter how small the income may be. It means to put aside something regularly out of one's earnings, no matter how little the saving may be. It means to follow the practice of Edward W. Bok, one of the successful men of our times. He says: "When I earned fifty cents per week, I saved five cents of it. It was the principle that I respected. It was the habit that I formed."

Regular and systematic saving is a key to prosperity. A great railroad-builder, when asked how to succeed in life, replied:

> If you want to know whether you are destined to be a success or a failure in life, you can easily find out. The test is easy and infallible. Are you able to save money? If not, drop out. You will lose; the seed of success is not in you.

Spend wisely. Thrift is as much a matter of wise spending as of systematic saving. Millions of dollars are thrown away every year in buying cheap shoes, shoddy clothing, and poorly made garments. Since such articles wear out in a short time, they really cost more in the long run than goods of better quality whose original price may be higher. To purchase clothing which will look shabby in a few weeks or which will lose its shape when rained upon is foolish, even though you may buy it "at a bargain." Most wasteful of all, perhaps, is the purchase of an insufficient amount of good food, since lack of nourishment by lowering vitality makes one an easy prey to any contagious disease which may appear in the neighborhood.

When Benjamin Franklin was a child of seven, he learned the one rule for spending. Given several pennies by his friends, he started for a shop, but on the way met another boy with a whistle. Charmed with the sound, Benjamin immediately offered his money for the instrument and returned home, blowing his whistle all over the house. When his brothers and sisters learned of his purchase, they told him that he had paid four times too much for the whistle and reminded him of the things he might have bought with his pennies. Chagrined at the thought, he had no more fun with the toy.

The incident, however, proved of value to Franklin in later life. "Often," he says, "when I was tempted to buy some unnecessary thing, I said to myself, 'Don't give too much for the whistle.'"

Invest safely. Put your savings at work. If you let them lie idle or hide them away in a stocking or toy bank, you not only run the risk of losing them, but you do yourself and the community little or no good. On the other hand, if you put your money in a savings bank or invest it in good bonds or high-grade stocks, it will bring you a return in interest

HELPING THE BIRDS

Our feathered friends will have a jubilee when they discover the feast which these boys are preparing for them. One boy is tying a piece of suet in a tree, two of the boys are clearing away snow to make places on which to scatter crumbs, and a third boy is putting food in the bird shelter. Do you help to protect the birds during the winter?

and at the same time will help to provide business and industry with the capital necessary to carry on production.

Millions of dollars are lost every year through swindles and foolish investments. It is important, therefore, to know the chief elements that underlie safe investments. The first and most important factor is safety: do not put your money in any enterprise, no matter how alluring, in which your capital is not secure. A second factor is marketability,

that is, salability: most investors find it necessary or advantageous at times to turn their investments into cash quickly; a security which can be sold readily at a fair price is therefore desirable. A third factor is rate of return: naturally an investor desires to receive as large an income as possible; a high rate, however, usually indicates a speculative, or unsafe, investment; it is better to receive a low rate with safety than to have a high rate and lose one's savings. A fourth element is prospect of appreciation, or rise in value. This is of less consequence than the three preceding principles and should have less influence, therefore, in determining one's action, but everyone naturally desires not only to maintain but also to increase his capital. In selecting an investment, then, consider the prospect of an advance in value.

Among the investments that rank high from the standpoint of safety and marketability are bonds issued by the United States, the states, most of our cities, and our chief railroads and industries. Other investments ranking slightly lower in safety and marketability, but somewhat higher in rate of return, are first mortgages on improved real estate, bonds of gas, light, and street-railway companies, and the stocks of leading industries and railroads. In making an investment always consult a reputable bank, bond house, or brokerage establishment. Invest safely.

Keep track of your income and expenses. Know where your money comes from and where it goes. Have an account book in which you enter every cent you receive and spend. If you take the trouble to list all items, you will discover, as Franklin says, "how wonderfully, small, trifling expenses mount up to large sums, and will discern what might have been and may, for the future, be saved without occasioning any great inconvenience."

In connection with your accounts you will find the making of a budget worth while, estimating your receipts and expenses week by week, month by month, and year by

year. A budget will help you to save regularly, to spend wisely, and to invest safely. It will also tell you whether you are making progress in forming habits of thrift.

Waste no time. "Dost thou love life? Then do not squander time, for that's the stuff life is made of," writes Franklin. People usually think of thrift as related only to money and natural resources. But the term deals equally with the saving of time, health, and strength. To waste time is, indeed, to waste money, for time is money. To quote Franklin again:

> The way to wealth, if you desire it, is as plain as the way to market. It depends on two words, *Industry* and *Frugality*; that is, waste neither *time* nor *money*, but make the best use of both.

Does Franklin mean, then, that we should use all our time in work or study? Not at all. He means that we should not idle our time away, that we should not dawdle at anything we undertake. He means merely that we should play when we play, study when we study, work when we work. Waste no time!

Summary. We need to save because the things that satisfy our wants are scarce. Unless we are economical in the use of natural resources, they will be greatly lessened or even exhausted within the next two hundred years. Since capital is the result of saving, it, too, needs to be conserved. Most important of all is the saving of human resources, especially of women and children. When rightly understood, conservation means the avoidance of waste for the enrichment of life.

Everyone can help in conservation: first, by preventing waste; second, by repairing losses; and third, by habits of personal thrift. We can all save systematically, spend wisely, invest safely, keep account of our receipts and expenses, have a personal budget, and economize our time. By such acts we can enrich our own lives and better the lives of others.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention ways in which Boy Scouts or Camp Fire Girls help to save the natural resources of your community.

2. Mention instances of wastefulness you have seen in the groceries or meat shops in your neighborhood. How might such waste be remedied?

3. Give an example of wise spending. Tell about an instance when you "gave too much for a whistle."

4. What is a "bargain"? Tell about a bargain you found expensive. In your community is it more profitable to rent a house or to own one? Get facts and figures to support your answer.

5. Tell about the first investment you ever made. How should you persuade a younger brother or sister to save?

6. What do the following maxims mean: "A penny saved is a penny gained"; "Penny wise; pound foolish"? Do the maxims agree? Are both true? Explain.

7. Explain the difference between a tightwad, a spendthrift, and a thrifty individual.

8. The Mississippi flood of 1927 destroyed many homes, villages, and farms, thereby providing employment for thousands of men for years to come; the destruction was therefore, in part, a good thing. Comment on the foregoing statement.

THINGS TO DO

1. Plan a campaign to protect the birds in your community. Have a contest in building bird houses, writing essays on the services of birds, and making posters to stimulate bird protection.

2. Draw up a budget estimating your income and expenses for the coming week. After trying the plan out, modify it in the light of your experience.

3. Outline a plan indicating, hour by hour, ways in which you can use your time most profitably. Try the plan and then change it so as best to fit your needs. Share experiences in class.

4. Find how much you would save at home if you should buy canned goods and breakfast foods by the case instead of by the single can or package.

5. If you do not have a savings bank in your school, choose a committee to suggest a plan for establishing one. Invite a banker to come to the school and describe ways of procedure. By writing to the Educational Thrift Service, Woolworth Building, New York, the committee can secure valuable suggestions.

6. Organize a Thrift Campaign in your school. Arrange to start, if possible, on National Thrift Week, which begins on Benjamin Franklin's birthday, January 17. Follow, in general, this program suggested by the National Thrift Committee:

January 17, Share-with-Others Day
January 18, Thrift Day
January 19, Budget, or Home-Economy, Day
January 20, Insurance Day
January 21, Own-Your-Home Day
January 22, Safe-Investment Day
January 23, Pay-Bills-Promptly Day

Provide assembly exercises, slogans, stunts, and contests suitable for each day.

7. Make maxims or verses emphasizing thrift. The following are examples by Franklin:

a. A stitch in time saves nine.
b. Waste not, want not.
c. One today is worth two tomorrows.
d. For age and want, save while you may;
No morning sun lasts a whole day.

8. Have a campaign to secure books for your school library by raising funds through the collection and sale of old newspapers, magazines, rubber, rags, and other materials often thrown away.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. * "Transforming Western Deserts," *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, 56–69.
2. "Shackling the Mississippi," *ibid.*, 70–82.
3. "John James Audubon, Lover and Student of Birds," *Heroes of Progress*, 1–10.
4. "Hunting Buffalo," G. B. Grinnell, *In Our Times*, 6–11.

5. "The Fate of the Fur Folk," E. Markham, *ibid.*, 51–53.
6. "Our Forests," W. F. Rocheleau, *ibid.*, 217–219.
7. "Petroleum and its Uses," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 143–153.
8. "Dangers in Modern Industry," *ibid.*, 374–384.
9. * "Waste in Industry," *ibid.*, 440–446.
10. "The Salmon," R. Beach, *The Worker and his Work*, 306–310.
11. "The Geological Survey," *The American Government*, 193–200.
12. * "The Great Roosevelt Dam," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, I, 200–203.
13. "From Printer Boy to Scientist and Statesman," *ibid.*, III, 1357–1358.
14. "Making Desert and Swamp Blossom," *ibid.*, V, 1827–1830.
15. "Saving and Thriving," *Readings in Community Life*, Part IV, section 2.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. *Stories of Thrift for Young Americans*, by Myron T. Pritchard and Grace A. Turkington. Scribner.
2. *The Use of Money*, by E. A. Kirkpatrick. Bobbs.
3. *Arbor Day*, by Robert H. Schauffler. Moffat.
4. * *Getting your Money's Worth*, by Isabel E. Lord. Harcourt.
5. *The Story of the Forest*, by John G. Dorrance. American.
6. *Tenants of the Trees*, by Clarence Hawkes. L. C. Page.
7. * *Wild Life in the Rockies*, by Enos A. Mills. Houghton.
8. *The Land we Live In*, by Overton W. Price. Small.
9. * *The Passing of the Old West*, by Hal G. Ewarts. Little.
10. *Sunset Biographies with Pen and Camera*, by John J. Ward. Stokes.
11. *The Tragedy of Waste*, by Stuart Chase. Macmillan.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *Rusty Miller*, by Joslyn Gray. Scribner.
2. *Polly Oliver's Problem*, by Kate D. Wiggin. Houghton.
3. *Bostwick's Budget*, by Henry P. Dowst. Bobbs.
4. * *The Story of a Thousand Year Pine*, by Dallas L. Sharp. Houghton.
5. *The World of the Great Forest*, by Paul B. DuChaillu. Scribner.
6. * *Black Beauty*, by Anna Sewell. Dodge.
7. *Roof and Meadow*, by Dallas L. Sharp. Houghton.
8. *The Wild Heart*, by Emma L. Squire. Cosmopolitan.
9. *Jo's Boys*, by Louisa M. Alcott. Little.

CHAPTER XXI

BUYING AND SELLING

Every link in the chain of distribution must be welded with the spirit of service. — CHARLES H. MACKINTOSH

SECTION I. WHY WE BUY AND SELL

Differences in needs and desires. The Indian wanted the rifles and trinkets of the white man more than the beaver skins and fox furs which he secured by hunting; the white man desired the furs of the Indian more than his own stock of guns, beads, and bright-colored cloth. In the days of Columbus the people of India and China valued the linens and coral of Europe more highly than their own silks and satins, whereas the Europeans longed for the spices and fabrics of the Orient more than for the products of their own labor.

Such differences in needs and tastes explain the first reason we buy and sell. We do not all want the same goods, and our desires for certain articles vary also in intensity. By buying and selling, or exchanging goods, we are better able to satisfy our wants.

Differences in natural conditions. A second reason we exchange goods is that the resources and products of various parts of the earth differ. Florida and Cuba produce cotton, oranges, and bananas but cannot raise wheat, apples, and flax; Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Illinois, on the other hand, are well suited for wheat, flax, and apples but cannot grow tropical fruits. In such cases an exchange of products is beneficial to both sections.

Even a single state often contains districts in which only one or two products may profitably be grown. In Florida, for example, Hastings raises potatoes, but nothing else; Ocala specializes in tomatoes; Plant City grows strawberries; Sanford, lettuce and celery; Winter Garden, cucumbers and peppers. In all such instances exchanges

BUYING AND SELLING

This old-fashioned country store contains all the necessities of life and some of the luxuries. Hardware, groceries, dry goods, and notions are all sold across its counters. If one customer wants a clock and another desires a straw hat or a stovepipe, both can be satisfied.

are necessary if each district is to make the most of its opportunities and share in the natural advantages of the other communities.

Differences in industry. The third reason we buy and sell goods arises from the specialization of labor and industry caused by the coming of the factory. Before the Industrial Revolution each home was able, as a rule, to satisfy its own necessities. On the little plot of land about the house the family could raise vegetables, fruit, and grain, and could

care for a few chickens, geese, pigs, and a cow or two. Within the cottage and neighboring shed the members of the family could spin thread, weave cloth, make garments, and hammer out tools. In such ways they could obtain food,

AN ORCHARD OF ORANGES

Because oranges grow better in this climate than other crops, almost the entire region is given over to their cultivation. But the fruit-growers cannot possibly eat all the oranges they raise, and they need many things they do not raise. By selling their surplus oranges they secure money to buy the other goods which they desire.

clothing, shelter, and the few necessary implements through their own labor with little dependence on the outside world.

But the factory and the growth of cities have caused a great change. In the city a workman cannot own several acres of land; and even if he could, he would not have time to farm them. His work in the factory makes it necessary for him, therefore, to depend on others for most of the things he formerly produced. At the same time the goods

turned out by the factory must be sold in distant markets, because the quantity produced is far greater than the workers themselves can use.

Thus the Industrial Revolution throws light upon the third reason for exchanging goods. By specializing in labor — doing the same task over and over — a worker becomes very skillful and can turn out many more goods than if he scatters his energies over many kinds of work.

Ewing Galloway

THE WORLD'S LARGEST FLOUR MILL

This big mill with the huge concrete wheat bins at the right makes flour which is shipped to all parts of the world. In return for their labor the mill workers receive, through buying and selling, goods which come from all quarters of the globe.

Men have found, therefore, that it pays to center their efforts in one industry and even to divide the labor within that industry into many distinct operations.

The resulting specialization of labor creates a vital need for the exchange of products. Workers in steel mills must depend on garment-makers for clothing; employees in shoe factories must rely on builders for houses; carpenters and stone masons must look to farmers and fruit-growers for food. Only through an exchange of products is specialization of labor possible.

Mutual gain. In the old days people believed that in any trade or exchange one person always gained and one person always lost. Now we see more truly that in a fair trade both persons gain, because by the transfer the desires of both are more fully gratified. Both a hunter with a Scotch collie and a shepherd with a good hound profit when the two men exchange dogs.

We buy and sell, then, because of differences in tastes, in natural conditions, and in labor. By exchanging goods we better satisfy our wants.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention two activities in your community that illustrate the need for exchanging goods.

2. Tell about the first trade you ever made. Compare your reasons for trading with those which the text gives for exchanging goods. Which of the three reasons do you consider the most important? Why?

3. Name three products raised or manufactured in your community which are shipped to other parts of the United States. Mention three articles in your home which came from other parts of the world.

4. How can each party to an exchange gain? Explain. Tell about a purchase you once made in which both you and the seller profited.

SECTION II. HOW WE DETERMINE VALUE

Value and price. In buying and selling the value of goods must be determined before transfers can be made. As used here, "value" means the power of a commodity to command other commodities in exchange for itself. If a bushel of wheat can be traded for three bushels of oats or sold for two dollars, its value is three bushels of oats or two dollars. The "price" of an article is merely its value expressed in

money; in the example just given the "price" of a bushel of wheat is two dollars.

Elements in value. Now what determines the prices of the articles we buy and sell? What fixes their value, or exchange power?

The value of an article, in the first place, is determined by its utility, or power to satisfy human wants; a commodity will have no value at all unless it has utility. But utility alone will not give it value or exchange power. Sunlight, which satisfies a want so great that nothing can take its place, has no exchange power whatever because the supply of sunlight is unlimited.

Nor is value determined by the beneficial qualities of goods. Air is so essential to life that if we were deprived of it for only a few minutes we should die. But air, like sunlight, is so abundant that it cannot be exchanged for anything else, and it has therefore no value. Poison, on the other hand, usually harms the user, but it is scarce and can command many goods in exchange for itself. Scarcity is therefore a second element that enters into value.

The value of goods, in short, is not determined by their utility alone nor by their beneficial qualities. It is determined, rather, by their utility *and* by their scarcity. In other words, value depends on the want-satisfying power of goods and on the supply of and demand for them.

Supply and demand. The "supply" of wheat, for example, means not the total stock or quantity which is in existence, but the amount which is offered for exchange, or sale, at a given time and price. The "demand" means the desire for wheat at a given time, plus both the ability and the willingness to pay what is asked for it. "Demand" does not mean a mere wish for an article unless the wish is backed up by both the power and the will to pay the price put upon the article. Usually, if the sum offered for certain goods goes up, the supply of such goods available for exchange will also increase; and, in

like manner, if the supply on the market increases, the sum offered will tend to decrease.

Such changes in value take place because any one human want can be satisfied at a given time. As complete satisfaction approaches, desire for the commodity decreases; demand therefore goes down. A hungry man, for example, will devour one sandwich eagerly; he will eat a second, third, or fourth with pleasure; but as he approaches a fifth, sixth, or seventh his hunger disappears, enjoyment wanes, and eating, if continued, finally causes pain. To satisfy his hunger, therefore, a starving man in a wilderness would probably be willing to pay a huge sum for a single sandwich; but he would not be willing to give so much for a second sandwich, and the amount which he would offer for a third, fourth, fifth, or sixth would grow less and less until at last he would be unwilling to give anything for a seventh or eighth.

Under such circumstances a grasping individual who had only one sandwich which he was willing to sell might secure almost any price for it. But if a number of persons had sandwiches and each offered to sell all he had for whatever price he could get, the amount which could be obtained for a sandwich would be no greater than the value of the last, or the least important, one. If, however, the supply remained the same but the demand increased, as it would if two starving men were bidding for sandwiches, then the price would rise.

Thus do changes in supply or demand set the rate of exchange and determine the value, or price, of goods. It must be remembered, of course, that as business is now carried on, the value of any commodity is fixed by the total quantity supplied to and demanded on the market at any one time. And the market, in the case of such commodities as wheat, sugar, cotton, and wool, means all the world.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is value? What determines the value of goods? To illustrate your answers, give examples not provided in the text.

2. What is meant by the price of an article? How is the price of an article determined?

3. What is the meaning of the word "market" as used in this section? What is a "world market"?

4. Explain the difference between desire and demand. When does desire become demand? How do merchants try to change desire into demand? Illustrate from what you saw in store windows as you came to school.

SECTION III. HOW WE MAKE EXCHANGES

Weights and measures. In making an exchange it is important, of course, to know the quantity and value of the goods to be transferred. Skins must be counted, cloth measured, grain weighed, in order to guard the interests of both parties to the exchange. Such needs led to the gradual development of the methods of counting and the systems of weights and measures we use today.

In very early times men estimated length and distance by using parts of the body as measuring units. They spoke of a horse as so many "hands" high, of a spear as so many "feet" long, and of a temple as so many "cubits" wide, a cubit being the distance from the elbow to the end of the second finger. But hands, feet, and arms vary in length, and measurements based upon them are inaccurate and unsatisfactory.

Even greater difficulty was met in determining weights. At first grains of wheat or barley were used to measure small objects, and stones were utilized for larger commodities. But such units caused trouble, because stones are unequal in size and even grains of wheat differ in weight. Finally, after many experiments, governments established

units of measurement by law in order to provide uniformity and to prevent the use of false weights and measures.

Exchange by barter. Primitive tribes usually exchange goods by barter. Negroes of central Africa, for example, trade elephant tusks and gold dust for mirrors, ribbons,

Ewing Galloway

BARTER

These natives from the wilds of Uganda have a regular meeting place where they come to exchange their merchandise. One brings bananas, another dates, and another some homemade products. Doubtless when the day is done each goes home well satisfied with his bargaining.

and jewelry. Even in our own civilized communities today farmers' wives often exchange butter and eggs at the country store for the calico, gingham, and groceries which they need. Most boys at some time in their lives swap knives or marbles with their playmates. Such exchanges, in which articles are traded directly for other articles, are transfers by barter.

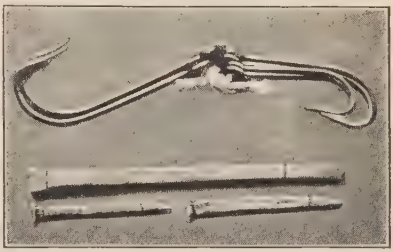
C

Difficulties in barter. Trade by barter is usually difficult and sometimes impossible. For example, Jones has more potatoes than he can use, but needs a horse badly. He will have a hard time finding a man with a desirable horse who wishes to exchange the horse for potatoes; and it always takes two to make a bargain. Even if Jones is successful in his search, the two men may have difficulty in estimating the quantity of potatoes the horse is worth. Exchange by barter is difficult, then, because it is hard to find someone who owns what the trader wants and who desires what the trader offers, and because, even if two such persons meet, it is hard to determine the value of the goods offered for exchange.

The services of money. The difficulties of barter led in early days to the invention of money, for money enables exchanges to be made easily. Although Jones will have trouble in trading his potatoes for a horse, he will have no difficulty in selling them for money, and with money he can easily buy a horse. Sheldon, who owns a horse which he does not care to keep, may be unwilling to exchange it for potatoes, because he already has as many potatoes as he can use; but he will be glad to part with the animal for money, for with the money he can purchase the harness, tools, and furniture which he desires. Money, in short, is a medium of exchange established by law which makes the transfer of commodities easy, because money is acceptable to both parties to an exchange.

Money is also a measure of value. When we go to the store to purchase clothing or groceries, money enables us to measure their value in the same way that a yardstick enables us to measure the length of a room. Suppose, for example, a trader estimates the value of a blanket at three beaver skins, a rifle at twenty, and a mirror at one; suppose also that he reckons the value of a marten skin as half a beaver skin, a sable fur as equal to three beaver skins, and a silver-fox fur as worth thirty beaver skins. That is, the

trader uses a beaver skin as money and with it measures the value of blankets, rifles, mirrors, and of marten, sable, and silver-fox furs. In such circumstances an Indian with a pack of marten, beaver, sable, and silver-fox furs has no trouble in exchanging them for mirrors, blankets, and rifles, because the value of the furs he offers and the goods he wants can easily be found and the exchange be carried through fairly. To make the transfer, it is necessary to know only the value in beaver skins of the articles to be exchanged. But to carry out by barter an exchange in which the seven articles enter requires a knowledge not merely of six but of more than twenty different values.



EARLY MEDIUMS OF EXCHANGE

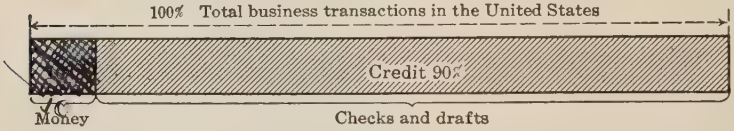
Hand-wrought nails as well as wampum and beaver skins were used as money by the New England colonists. The natives on the islands off Alaska often employ fishhooks for the same purpose.

The important part money plays as a measure of value appears at once when we remember the immense variety of goods bought and sold today and the difficulty if not the impossibility of exchanging them fairly if we had to depend on barter. The two services of money as a medium of exchange and as a measure of value explain in large part its importance in modern business.

Materials used as money. Many commodities have served as money at different times in the history of the world. Early Romans measured values in terms of cattle. New England colonists in trading with the Indians used beaver skins and wampum. Virginia planters employed tobacco; ancient Spartans, iron; early Norwegians, wheat; Britons, tin; Congo negroes, calico; Russians, tea; Icelanders, dried codfish; American Indians, beads, shells, fishhooks, furs, and, in parts of California, the red scalps of woodpeckers.

But none of the commodities named were entirely satisfactory as mediums of exchange. Some were bulky, many were hard to divide without lessening or destroying their value, and practically all were injured by much handling. Consequently all of them finally gave way to gold and silver, two metals which have practically all the merits and none of the defects of the other commodities.

Credit. Serviceable as money is, its value in exchange is surpassed by that of credit. Credit is the securing of goods at one time and the paying for them at a later time. Credit is based upon the confidence of the seller or lender



THE EXTENT OF CREDIT

in the ability and willingness of the buyer or borrower to pay later for what he now receives. Nine tenths of the world's business is carried on by credit.

When a housewife purchases groceries from day to day and pays for them the following month, she enjoys what is called "book credit." When a farmer buys a reaper and signs a paper promising to pay for the machine in six months, he obtains credit by means of a "promissory note." When a buyer pays for goods by giving the seller an order on a bank in which the buyer has money, the buyer pays by a form of credit called a check. Book accounts, promissory notes, and checks are all forms of credit.

Promissory notes and checks, although forms of credit, sometimes serve as money, for the receiver may, if he wishes, "indorse," or sign, the note or check on the back and give it in payment of a debt or purchase. In the case of a promissory note, however, the receiver will usually "discount" the note before accepting it; that is, he will

subtract from the amount of the note interest for the time which remains until the note is to be paid. A seller or creditor, of course, cannot be forced to accept checks or promissory notes; he does so only because he desires to do so and has faith in the buyer or borrower.

Development of banking. The chief agency for credit is the bank. Its work can best be understood by knowing how banks came into existence.

In the Middle Ages usually the only people who had vaults or strong boxes in which to store valuables were the goldsmiths. To them merchants were in the habit of bringing for safe-keeping money which they did not want to use immediately, receiving in its place receipts which they were to present when they wished their money returned. The protection provided by the goldsmiths proved so attractive that in time large sums accumulated in their strong boxes. Finding that few receipts were turned in for payment on the same day and that, in consequence, large amounts of gold and silver were always on hand, the goldsmiths began to lend money on interest to persons who wished to borrow and who, the goldsmiths believed, would be able and willing to repay the loan when due. In other words, they lent to those who were able to give good security and in whom they had confidence.

The merchants did not object to the arrangement, because they were able to draw out their funds whenever they wished to do so. In fact, they welcomed the new plan, because the goldsmiths not only stopped charging a fee for keeping the money, but also began to pay interest on the funds the merchants deposited and at times lent them money to meet their own needs. In addition, the merchants discovered that, instead of paying debts in gold or silver, it was safer and more convenient to give their creditors written orders to the goldsmith directing him to pay the sum specified to the person named. The receiver, in turn, instead of taking the order to the goldsmith to secure

payment, often found it more convenient to give the same slip, after signing it, to one of his creditors. Thus the order itself became a kind of money. In this way checks originated.

Many goldsmiths, finding that the receiving and lending of funds was more profitable than the making of jewelry, dropped their trade as goldsmiths and began to give all their time to the new business. Thus it was that banking developed.

Chief services of a bank. The main services of a modern bank are shown by the preceding sketch. As a receiver of funds a bank is a place of deposit; as a lender of money it is a place of discount. By such services a bank makes available for business large sums of money which, when scattered among many depositors, are useless as aids to production.

Banks play an enormous part in providing capital for industry, which in most instances is conducted on borrowed funds. In addition, they aid business by extending credit to responsible persons and organizations. They also serve the community by encouraging thrift, by furnishing places in which money may be kept safely, by making payments easy through the use of checks and drafts, and by helping people to make safe and profitable investments.

Marketing. Marketing means much more than merely going with a basket for green groceries, fruit, or meat. Marketing means the whole process by which goods pass from producers to consumers. It includes means of measurement, such as the weights, money, and credit through which goods are exchanged; transportation facilities such as trains, trucks, and boats by which produce is carried from place to place; and merchandising agencies such as wholesale establishments, jobbing houses, and retail stores through which goods are sold.

There are many variations in the character and activities of all merchandising agencies. Wholesale establishments

generally deal in only one line of goods, secure their supplies from manufacturers and original producers, and furnish commodities to jobbers and retailers. Jobbing houses usually carry a wide line of goods, securing their supplies from wholesalers or from producers and furnishing merchandise to retailers. Retail dealers for the most part handle many kinds of articles; as a rule they obtain supplies from jobbers or wholesalers and sell merchandise to individual consumers.

Naturally the many hands through which goods pass on their way to the final consumer greatly increase the price at which they are sold. For example, a quart of milk costing the consumer fourteen cents often brings the farmer only three cents; the remaining eleven cents represent transportation charges and the expenses and profits of middlemen.

Various efforts have been made to reduce marketing costs. In some instances manufacturers have established wholesale departments to deal with retailers or jobbers, but such departments are sometimes as expensive as independent wholesale organizations. Mail-order houses too have developed to secure supplies from manufacturers and sell goods directly to consumers. Most promising of all, perhaps, is the growth in recent years of coöperative associations, especially in rural communities. A farmer who belongs to the association has the privilege of bringing his produce to the coöperative market; here he is paid by the association, which then sells the produce to consumers.

Teamwork in marketing. California leads the nation in coöperative associations. Fruit-growers, dairymen, wheat-raisers, truck farmers all have their own marketing organizations to sell their produce and in some instances to buy their supplies. The value of the farm produce handled annually amounts to more than $250,000,000.

Similar marketing organizations on a smaller scale have been formed in other states. Especially notable are the dairymen's leagues in Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Iowa;

the grain-growers' associations in Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, and North Dakota; the live-stock organizations in Iowa, Minnesota, and Illinois; and the fruit-growers and vegetable-growers' unions in Florida, New York, and Michigan. But the coöperative movement has only begun; its extension is greatly needed.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How does money differ as a measure from all other measures?

2. Find what you would be worth at your weight in gold; in silver. Can gold be more valuable in one country than in another? Explain.

3. Explain the chief kinds of credit. Which plays the most important part in business?

4. Look up the meaning of credit as given in the dictionary. Tell whether there is any connection between its literal meaning and its meaning in business.

5. What seems the chief service of the banks in your community? In what ways do people who deposit money in banks help society? What is the difference between a savings account and a checking account? Which is more serviceable to the community? Why? Give two advantages of a checking account. Why are banks willing to accept small checking accounts?

6. Name a wholesale organization, a jobbing house, and a retail store in your community. Describe the work of each so as to bring out the differences between them.

7. What marketing associations has your community? Tell about the activities of one of them.

Section IV. How the Government Aids Exchange

Weights and measures. The danger of fraud from false weights and measures and the difficulty of carrying on trade with inaccurate means of measurement finally caused governments to establish standards by law. The Bureau

of Standards in Washington has model weights and measures made of platinum which are copied by makers of scales and measures for use throughout the United States. To protect people from dishonest dealers, government officers frequently test the weights and measures used by traders and merchants. Violators of the law are punished by fine and at times by imprisonment.

Our system of weights and measures is very complicated. Including English and Canadian units with the same names we have " four different sizes of pints, quarts, and gallons; three different sizes of gills; many sizes of barrels; an untold number of sizes of bushels of things sold in different states, such as apples and potatoes; three kinds of ounces, drams, and pounds; two different sizes of hundredweights; four different tons; and two or three kinds of miles."

DISHONEST SCALES

Through the hole cut in the back of this wooden box you can see the weights which have been fastened to one end of the balance to make the scales weigh unfairly. Government inspectors discovered the dishonesty, the scales were condemned, and the shopkeeper was fined.

To remedy the confusion, it has been proposed that we adopt the metric system, which is used by all scientists and also is employed in business in all civilized countries except the United States and the British Empire. Metric measurements, like our money, are based on the decimal system; their use would save time and expense. More than a century ago Jefferson, backed by Washington, tried to have Congress adopt a decimal system of weights and measures,

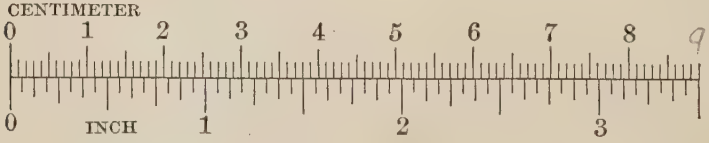
but without success. More than one hundred thousand petitions are now on file in the Department of Commerce urging the establishment of the metric plan. At the present time a bill for that purpose is before Congress, but action upon the measure has not yet been taken.

A FALSE MEASURE

Although government inspectors are usually able to discover such false measures as this basket with the double sides and bottoms, customers too need to be on guard against the trickery and fraud of dishonest dealers.

Money. Early traders had much trouble in agreeing on the weight and purity of the gold and silver used in exchange. The need for reliable money caused many dealers to stamp their own names on gold and silver bars together with the weight and purity of the metal; if the dealer's reputation for honesty was good, the bar was usually accepted without question.

But many dealers were dishonest; moreover, an error of a fraction of an ounce meant a heavy loss to the buyer or

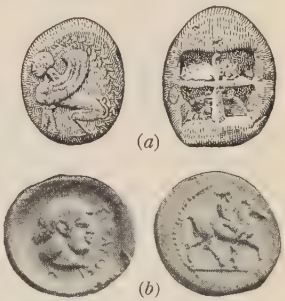


A COMPARISON OF THE CENTIMETER AND INCH SCALES

seller. The need for accuracy and for protection against fraud was so great, therefore, that governments finally took over the whole matter of coinage. Nothing is money today until the government's stamp has been placed upon it and until the law compels individuals to accept it as legal tender in payment of debts.

Banking laws. Experience with dishonest and foolish bankers gradually taught people that greater safeguards are needed in banking than are necessary in other lines of business. In early days in our own country, especially in the West, banks were often opened by men who had little capital and less character. Such "wildcat banks" frequently failed, with heavy loss to the depositors. Out of such experiences came the strict banking laws of today.

At the present time banks may be formed only after the organizers have conformed to the state or national laws on banking. The laws usually contain requirements as to capital, loans, reserves, and supervision. To enforce the regulations, inspectors examine the banks at frequent intervals, thus protecting the community.



EARLY COINS

The early Greeks made coins by stamping designs on small lumps of gold, as shown at the left. The mark of the anvil which held the metal is shown at the right (*a*). Later a pattern was also placed on the anvil with the beautiful result shown in the lower example (*b*).

Federal Reserve banking system. The most important development in banking in the United States during late years was the organization in 1913 of the Federal Reserve banking system. It had long been difficult in the West and South for buyers to obtain enough money to handle crop transfers when the crops were marketed. At such seasons more money was needed than the local banks could lend, and in consequence business was seriously hampered. To remedy such difficulties, Congress passed the Federal Reserve Act.

The act divides the country into twelve districts, each containing a Federal Reserve bank. All national banks and such state banks as wish to do so may become members of the system by meeting the requirements of the law. Member banks are able to secure Federal Reserve notes

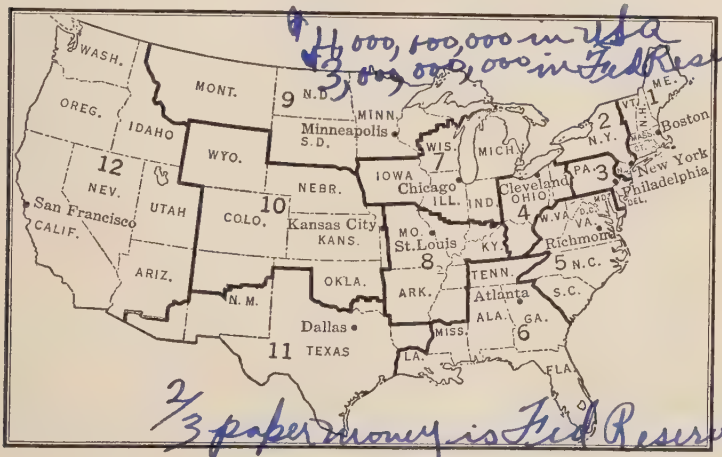
(a kind of paper money) by sending first-class securities or "commercial paper" (promissory notes and similar obligations) to the Federal Reserve bank in their district. They can thus obtain funds to meet the needs of their customers. Since member banks are required to keep part of their funds in the local Federal Reserve bank, the money of the district is made more available for business needs than before the act was passed. By centralizing money and sending it from place to place as needed, and by issuing bank notes to meet special emergencies, the Federal Reserve system gives valuable aid to the business interests of the nation.

EXAMINING GOLD COINS

These men, employed by the national government, are inspecting gold coins for possible defects. The coins are examined on both sides as they pass along on a belt under the eye of the inspectors. When this picture was taken, $20,000 in $2.50 gold pieces was in the hopper.

Federal land banks. In 1916 Congress created land banks, which do for farmers what the Federal Reserve system does for business men. From the land banks farmers can borrow funds at a low rate of interest with a long period for repayment. With the money they may equip their farms with live stock, machinery, and buildings. In addition to banks established by the national government, the states have chartered state banks, trust companies, and building-and-loan associations, which render important services to the communities in which they are located.

Marketing. More than forty states now have laws which make it easy for farmers to form coöperative associations like those described in the preceding section. The national government has passed legislation which enables such organizations to send produce from state to state and even to foreign countries. During recent years the courts have upheld the principles of coöperative marketing in a number



FEDERAL RESERVE DISTRICTS

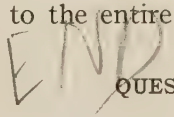
A Federal Reserve bank deals with banks, not with individuals. The figures show the different Federal Reserve districts, the cities in heavy type being the places in which Federal Reserve banks are located.

of important decisions. As the result of the foregoing laws and court decrees the door is wide open for the development of teamwork among farmers.

Summary. We buy and sell because of dissimilarities in tastes, differences in the products of various regions, and specialization in industry and labor. Exchanges were first made by barter, but as transfers became more frequent, systems of weights, measures, and money developed. Money plays an important part in business as a medium of exchange, a measure of value, and a legal tender for

debts. The greater part of the world's business, however, is carried on by means of credit. Of the various credit agencies banks are the most important. The most promising recent movement in buying and selling has been the development of coöperative marketing, especially in rural communities.

To aid business and prevent fraud, modern governments establish by law standard weights and measures, and exercise complete control over money. They also safeguard the public from corrupt or foolish banking by regulating and supervising banks and trust companies. To assist commerce and agriculture, the national government has also established the Federal Reserve banking system and the Federal land-bank system, both of which give valuable service to the entire country.



QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How often are the scales in the stores of your neighborhood tested? Find who tests them and tell how he does it. Ask your grocer or druggist.

2. Give three advantages of the metric system as compared with our present system of weights and measures. What objections do you see to its adoption?

3. Does the value of money ever change? How can one tell? What makes money valuable? Would the material of which money is made have value if it were not used as money? Explain.

4. What is counterfeiting? How is it punished? Why so severely?

5. Why should a bank be regulated more strictly than a shoe store?

6. What is meant by "a run" on a bank? What causes it? How is it dangerous to the community?

THINGS TO DO

1. Have an exhibit of old money, each member of the class bringing any coins in his possession. Be prepared to tell matters of interest about the coins you bring.

2. Bring to class three advertisements which you consider effective and be able to point out the merits of each. Bring also one advertisement which you consider poor and be ready to show its elements of weakness. Be able to explain the chief features in an effective advertisement.

3. Get a bank statement from one of the banks in your community and be ready to explain each item. Note, in particular, the meaning of resources, liabilities, capital, loans and discounts, reserve, and surplus. If you need help, ask some employee of the bank for information.

4. Choose a classmate to find out and report on how to make a deposit in a bank and how to borrow from a bank.

5. Find out what a group of people in your community would need to do in order to organize a state bank. Inquire from a lawyer or a bank employee.

6. If you live in the country and there is no coöperative marketing association in your vicinity, choose a committee to write to associations asking for information and suggestions on forming a local organization. The committee can secure addresses of associations and literature from the United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C., or from your own state Department of Agriculture at your state capital. See also Campbell's *Rural Life at the Crossroads* (Ginn), 127, 132–134.

7. Invite a local business man, lawyer, or banker to tell the class how the Federal Reserve system or the Federal land-bank system is of help to your community.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "The Upbuilding of a Business," O. R. Agresti, *America's Message*, 197–205.
2. "The Tin Peddler," W. D. McKee, *In Our Times*, 28–33.
3. * "Coöperative Marketing by Farmers," E. E. Miller, *ibid.*, 38–41.
4. * "Our Measuring Devices or Standards," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 124–132.
5. "Early Markets and Fairs," *ibid.*, 212–219.
6. "Coins," *ibid.*, 220–226.
7. "Paper Money," *ibid.*, 226–234.

8. "The Romance of a Busy Broker," O. Henry, *The Worker and his Work*, 77–80.
9. "The Woman and her Bonds," E. Lefevre, *ibid.*, 81–95.
10. "The Wheat Pit," F. Norris, *ibid.*, 96–107.
11. * "The Bureau of Standards," *The American Government*, 247–258.
12. "The Metal that measures the World's Wealth," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, IV, 1479–1480.
13. "Uncle Sam — the World's Greatest 'Money Maker,'" *ibid.*, V, 2258–2259.
14. * "Money: What it Does and How it is Made," *ibid.*, VI, 2281–2284.
15. "How Long? How Much? What does it Weigh?" *ibid.*, IX, 3713–3715.
16. "Buying and Selling," *Readings in Community Life*, Part IV, section 3.

II. Home Readings

A. Bibliography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. *Romance of Modern Commerce*, by H. O. Newland. Lippincott.
2. *Men who Sell Things*, by Walter D. Moody. McClurg.
3. *Little Journeys to the Homes of Great Business Men*, by Elbert Hubbard. Roycrofters.
4. *The Great Game of Business*, by J. George Frederick. Appleton.
5. *A Short History of Coins*, by Sir John Lubbock. Dutton.
6. *Trading and Exploring*, by Agnes V. Luther. American.
7. *The Story of Gold and Silver*, by Elizabeth I. Samuel. Penn.
8. *How Man makes Markets*, by William B. Werthner. Macmillan.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. * *David Harum*, by Edward N. Westcott. Appleton.
2. *Calumet "K,"* by Henry K. Webster and Samuel Merwin. Macmillan.
3. *The Booming of Acre Hill*, by John K. Bangs. Harper.
4. *Roast Beef Medium*, by Edna Ferber. Stokes.
5. *The Pit*, by Frank Norris. Doubleday.

CHAPTER XXII

SENDING MESSAGES AND DISTRIBUTING NEWS

Neither snow nor rain nor heat nor the darkness of night stays these messengers from the swift completion of their appointed rounds. — HERODOTUS

SECTION I. HOW PEOPLE USED TO SEND MESSAGES

Primitive tribes. Travelers have never discovered people who could not communicate with one another. This is, of course, just what we should expect, for people could not live together if they were unable to exchange ideas.

PICTURE WRITING

This story of an Alaskan hunt, from Myers's *Ancient History*, reads thus: "I go, by boat (indicated by paddle); sleep one night (hand to side of head denotes sleep), on island with two huts; I go to another island; two sleeps there; hunt with harpoon, sea lion; also with bow; return by boat with companion (indicated by two paddles), to my lodge."

The earliest method of exchanging thought was probably by cries and gestures. Even today, when we become excited or when we meet foreigners whose language we do not understand, we use gestures and noises to express our meaning. Slowly and gradually sounds became words, languages developed, picture messages arose, alphabets were formed, writing came into existence, and the printing press was invented. The various stages in communication, however, required thousands and thousands of years for their development.

Early tribes had very few dealings with other tribes. They usually looked upon strangers as enemies. Each

community lived largely to itself. When some unusual event occurred, it is true, a primitive tribe seems to have passed on the news to its neighbors. The early explorers who pushed their way into the wilderness of America found that the Indians used smoke signals by day and beacon fires by night to inform other tribes farther inland of the coming of the white man. Henry M. Stanley, one of the first whites to enter central Africa, discovered that by tidings passed from village to village by the beating of great drums the strange tribes he visited usually knew of his approach long before his arrival.

Primitive people also had ways of sending messages to the members of their tribe when danger threatened. In time of war a Scotch chieftain, for example, summoned his followers to battle, as Walter Scott tells us, by a cross of wood, blackened by fire and reddened in blood:

> When flits this cross from man to man,
> Vich-Alpine's summons to his clan,
> Burst be the ear which fails to heed!
> Palsied the foot that shuns to speed!

And the message, you may be sure, usually brought a prompt response.

Ancient peoples. Peoples of the ancient world were very skillful in developing ways and means of sending messages. The Egyptians, who were the first to use letters, organized a royal mail service which delivered government orders with speed and certainty throughout the empire. The Greeks and Hebrews had posts, or runners, who carried messages from place to place in remarkably short time. The Persians and the Romans established relay systems, with riders and horses stationed at regular intervals along the highways, so called because the roads were built several feet higher than the ground on each side. Under the Roman system letters often traveled one hundred miles a day, or farther.

In addition to the delivery of written messages by human carriers, ancient peoples made a beginning at air telegraphy, or "far writing," as the word "telegraphy" means. When the Greeks captured the city of Troy three thousand years ago, we are told that they sent the news of their victory to Greece by fire signals flashing from one mountain top to another. A thousand years after that time a famous Greek historian invented a method of sending messages along by torches, but the plan proved too complex for practical use. For centuries, however, signaling by fire continued to be used whenever it was necessary to send news very rapidly.

Ewing Galloway

A PRIMITIVE BROADCASTING INSTRUMENT

Primitive African tribes use drums to make music, to sound alarms, and to relay news to places hundreds of miles away.

New inventions. Few improvements in communication were made between the days of the Romans and our modern times; indeed, in comparison with the conditions when Julius Cæsar was alive, an actual decline took place. With the Industrial Revolution and the development of modern commerce, however, manufacturers and dealers required information about crops, prices, and market conditions much more quickly than was possible under existing modes of communication. The need led in time to the invention of the telegraph, the telephone, and the wireless.

1. *The telegraph.* When Samuel F. B. Morse, the inventor, first tried to secure money from Congress to build a forty-mile telegraph line, some congressmen laughed at his idea, while others maintained that the invention would be of little use even if it did what Morse claimed. Fortunately a few members saw more clearly, and in 1844 they persuaded Congress to vote $30,000 to construct a trial line from Baltimore to Washington. The experiment proved the practical value of the telegraph, and in less than twenty years lines were built from Canada to the Gulf of Mexico and from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

THE WIRELESS AT SEA

Wireless operators on board ship keep in constant communication with other vessels as well as with stations on land. In time of disaster an S O S call usually brings help within one or two hours.

2. *The cable.* In 1866 Cyrus W. Field united Europe and America by a submarine telegraph across the Atlantic. At the beginning of the twentieth century Asia and America also were joined by cable. Today, with right conditions, a message is sent around the world by means of telegraph and cable in less than ten minutes.

3. *The telephone.* What the telegraph and cable are to the nation and the world, the telephone is to the local community. Looked upon as a toy when invented by Alexander Graham Bell in 1876, the telephone is now regarded as a necessity. With the building of long-distance lines its importance has grown rapidly.

4. *The wireless.* The latest victory in communication is the invention of the wireless. In 1896 a young Italian scientist named Marconi succeeded in sending a message without the help of wires a distance of more than two miles. Eleven years later he sent dispatches by wireless across the Atlantic. Today broadcasting stations and receiving sets are common in all parts of the world, while service by radiophone between the United States and Europe has been established. The wireless telegraph and the wireless telephone have apparently completed man's conquest of distance in so far as sending messages, news, and even pictures is concerned.

TALKING ACROSS THE OCEAN

If you want to talk to Europe, these switchboard operators will make the connection for you by radiotelephone. A three-minute conversation from St. Louis to Berlin will cost you only eighty-five dollars.

Communication today. Telephone and telegraph lines, as well as millions of radios, unite all parts of our country at the present time. In addition, cables and wireless connect us with every civilized nation in the world. We now have in the United States 2,000,000 miles of telegraph lines in operation, — enough to encircle the earth eighty times, — while 200,000,000 messages are carried annually over the wires. Our telephone companies operate 17,000,000 telephones and handle 70,000,000 calls a day, a far greater number

of messages than are sent over the telegraph and cable combined. In addition, powerful broadcasting stations send speeches, news, and music throughout the United States and also to Central and South America, to Europe, and even to parts of Asia.

SEEING IS BELIEVING

With this television receiving set you can see and hear your friends talking and acting miles away. The pictures appear in the small opening at the top of the cabinet.

The value of wireless telegraphy and telephony has long since been proved. Almost every ship that sails the sea carries wireless apparatus, and even the transcontinental trains are similarly equipped. On trips to and from Europe or Asia travelers are in constant touch with affairs on land and are able to transact business and to send messages in ways impossible twenty-five years ago. Scarcely a week goes by in which a distress signal from some ship does not lead to the saving of lives and property. Although still in its infancy, the wireless has shown itself a valuable ally of the telegraph and telephone.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Show messages you can send by gestures or facial expressions. To what extent do moving pictures depend on gestures?

2. Explain difficulties that would arise in sending messages by smoke signals or fires.

3. Was the alphabet or the printing press the greater invention? Give reasons.

4. Which of the following was the most important invention, — the telegraph, cable, or telephone? Give reasons. How would the destruction of the telegraph, telephone, and wireless affect business in your community? Give examples.

5. Tell about the life and inventions of one of the following: John Gutenberg; Samuel F. B. Morse; Cyrus W. Field; Alexander Graham Bell; Guglielmo Marconi; Richard M. Hoe.

Section II. How the Government Helps Communication

Our early postal service. Every one-cent postage stamp is a monument to Benjamin Franklin, the man who is looked upon as the founder of a service which reaches more Americans than does any other branch of the government. Because of his work the mails between the chief cities in the colonies seem to have been made superior to the best lines in England. But the postal arrangements of Franklin's time, in spite of their improvements, form an unfavorable contrast to the service of today.

When Washington became president there were only seventy-five post offices in the United States. To send a letter from New York to Boston required six days, and the postriders made the trip only three times a week. Letters were so frequently opened and read that people often wrote to one another in code, or cipher, in order to keep their correspondence secret. So common was the theft of money and packages that many persons preferred to trust valuables to travelers rather than to send them by post.

In those days postage was high and service was slow. To send a letter of a single sheet from Boston to Philadelphia cost eighteen and a half cents and required from eight to nine days. There were no postage stamps, no postal cards, no mail boxes at the street corners, no mail collections, no house-to-house delivery. Even by Lincoln's time the service was not much better. In 1844 to send a letter

thirty miles cost six cents, and letters going over four hundred miles cost twenty-five cents. As late as 1858 the postal rate was ten cents for a letter from St. Louis to San Francisco and over three weeks were needed for the transfer.

Just before the Civil War, however, improvements began. A pony express was established from the Missouri River to the Pacific. Eighty of the best riders on the frontier were employed, one hundred relay stations were built, and five hundred fast horses were purchased. Each rider carried nothing but a knife, a revolver, and the two waterproof mail bags whose contents never weighed more than twenty pounds. Letters were written on tissue paper, for everything had to be kept as light as possible. Postage at first was five dollars for letters weighing less than one-half ounce, ten dollars for those weighing from one-half to one ounce.

The schedule time of the pony express from St. Joseph, Missouri, to the Pacific, was ten days; previously the trip had never been made in less than eighteen. Among the famous riders was William F. Cody (Buffalo Bill), who, on one occasion, when barely sixteen years old, carried the mails over three hundred miles in twenty-one hours, with no stops except to change horses and swallow a hasty meal. The pony express never failed to keep up to schedule except when the riders were killed by the Indians; usually the mail came in ahead of time. The building of the telegraph to the coast in 1861 caused the service to be dropped, while the construction of the Union Pacific Railway six years later furnished rapid transit for Western mail.

Postal service of today. The speed, cost, and extent of the postal service of the present time stand in striking contrast to the mails in the days of Washington and Lincoln. The 75 offices of 1790 have been succeeded by 50,000 offices. More than 45,000 rural postal routes provide excellent service for millions of farmers. One billion postal cards and twice as many stamped envelopes

are sold every year. Over 25,000,000,000 pieces of mail are delivered annually. For years the International Postal Union has made possible the sending of mail from one country to another at low rates.

In addition to letters, papers, and magazines, the Post Office carries merchandise by parcel post at slight cost. By

Ewing Galloway

THE AIR MAIL

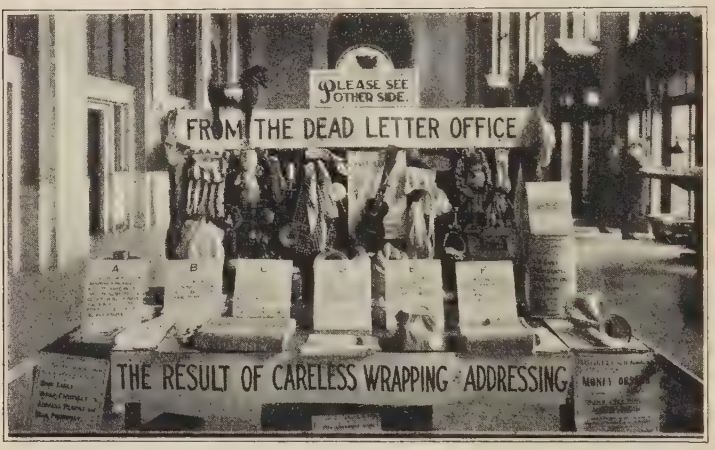
Air-mail service is now provided to all sections of the country. Letters sent by air mail from Boston at nine o'clock in the evening on Monday are due to arrive at Los Angeles on Wednesday afternoon at 4.30 o'clock

the sale of money orders a safe means of sending money through the mails is provided. For additional fees mail matter is registered and insured, and special-delivery service is furnished to persons who want more rapid transportation of their mail. The Post Office also receives money on deposit, and serves as a savings bank for almost a million men, women, and children.

Although founded only in 1918, the air mail provides rapid delivery to all parts of the country. We can now

mail a letter in New York City at eleven o'clock in the morning and have it reach San Francisco at half past four o'clock the following afternoon; on one occasion the distance was covered in twenty-six hours and fourteen minutes.

Lost mail. The Post Office rarely loses anything intrusted to its care. Postal employees are sometimes unable to deliver mail, however, owing to bad wrapping and incorrect



DEAD LETTERS

In a single year the value of the inclosures found in letters and parcels which could not be delivered because of careless wrapping or incorrect addressing amounted to almost six million dollars.

addresses. Every year one hundred thousand letters bearing no address are dropped into mail boxes; in addition, hundreds of thousands of packages are misdirected. During a single year twenty-four million pieces of mail were sent to the Dead-Letter Office, the division of the postal service which examines such material and tries to return it to the senders. Care in wrapping and addressing mail and the placing of one's own address in the upper left-hand corner would prevent both loss and delay and, in addition, would save the government time and money.

Management and cost. Management of the Post Office is in the hands of the Postmaster-General. He is aided by four Assistant Postmasters-General, who have charge of establishing post offices, transporting mails, and securing equipment and supplies; the details of the service are cared for by three hundred and fifty thousand employees. With few exceptions postmasters and other postal employees are appointed under civil-service regulations.

Does the Post Office pay for itself? The answer is No. Only once during the last ten years have postal revenues equaled postal expenses. But the Post Office is not run for profit; regardless of expense, it serves the public as quickly and as safely as possible; to whatever part of the country Americans go the mail follows them. Like most departments of the government, the Post Office exists for service; the nature of its work is truly described by the following inscriptions carved over the two main entrances to the Post Office building in Washington:

EAST ENTRANCE

CARRIER OF NEWS AND KNOWLEDGE
INSTRUMENT OF TRADE AND INDUSTRY
PROMOTER OF MUTUAL ACQUAINTANCE
OF PEACE AND OF GOOD WILL AMONG
MEN AND NATIONS

WEST ENTRANCE

MESSENGER OF SYMPATHY AND LOVE
SERVANT OF PARTED FRIENDS
CONSOLER OF THE LONELY
BOND OF THE SCATTERED FAMILY
ENLARGER OF THE COMMON LIFE

Distribution of information. In addition to carrying private messages throughout the country, the national government also distributes information of great value to the

public. For example, the Weather Bureau, a division of the Department of Agriculture, gathers and spreads news about weather conditions, enabling fruit-growers and gardeners to protect their crops against frost and sudden cold, guiding sailors in their voyages by forecasting storms and hurricanes, and warning the inhabitants of river valleys of approaching floods, thus saving both life and property. Every morning the Market-News service of the Department of Agriculture sends out its reports by telegraph and radio on the production and marketing of various fruits and vegetables, thereby saving to growers, shippers, dealers, and consumers millions of dollars annually. The department's meat-news service, crop estimates, and bulletins on seeds, weeds, and insects also render an important service to stock-raisers, farmers, and merchants.

Leet Brothers

THE WEATHER BUREAU

The United States Weather Bureau gives us valuable and systematic services by sending out warnings of frost, cold waves, storms, and floods. These instruments automatically measure the rain and the snowfall.

The taking of the census is another government activity of great importance to scholars, legislators, and business men. Once every ten years the Bureau of the Census, a division of the Department of Commerce, collects information of all kinds about the population and industries of the United States. Its reports, which are the most complete publications of the kind in the world, contain information not only about the number of people in the cities, counties,

and states in the country, but also about the movement of population from rural communities to the cities. They also tell the number of foreigners in the country, the occupations of the people, the number of marriages and divorces, and the production of our farms, mines, and factories. The taking of the last census required the services of almost one hundred thousand workers and cost $23,000,000, but it was well worth the cost. In addition to the distribution of

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THE LAST CENSUS REPORTS

Reliable and detailed information about the population and industries of the United States may be found in the fifteen large volumes which make up the last census reports.

information by the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Commerce, other departments spread valuable news about education, labor, health, commerce, inventions, and finance.

Control of radio. When the radio first came into use the government exercised little control over it, and any person who wished to establish a broadcasting station could obtain a license to do so from the Department of Commerce. The resulting confusion and controversy over wave lengths, power, time allotments, and programs caused Congress to pass an act conferring authority upon the Secretary of Commerce to grant licenses, determine wave lengths, fix

time allotments, and decide all other matters connected with broadcasting; decisions of the secretary are subject to review by a radio commission appointed by the president. Much has already been done to reduce the jumble of howls and squeals that seriously mar the enjoyment of radio-listeners.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Would it be wise to raise postal rates so as to enable the Post Office to make a profit? Give reasons.

2. Explain with examples the inscriptions on the Post Office building in Washington (see page 475).

3. Compare the cost of sending a letter from St. Louis to San Francisco by air mail with the cost by pony express. Find what it costs now to send a letter from St. Louis to Singapore.

4. Look up in an encyclopedia the history of the postage stamp. Why do people sometimes collect stamps?

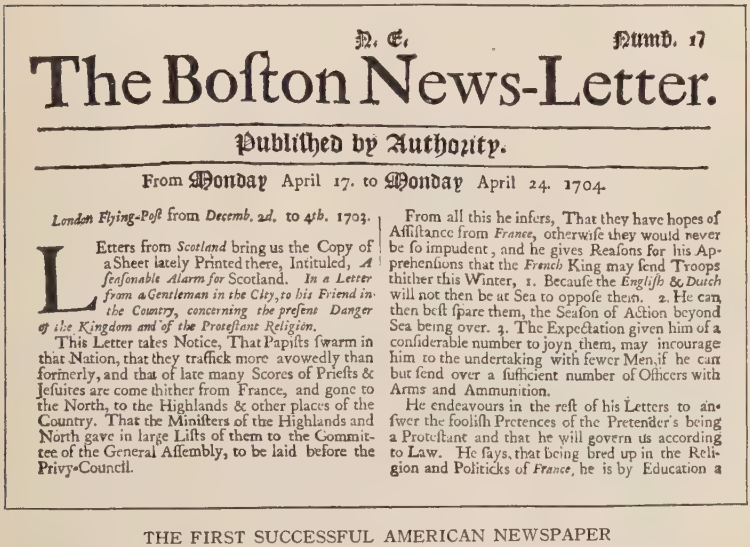
5. How close does the air mail come to your home? Find how much time, compared with the regular service, the air mail saves in taking a letter from your home to New York or Los Angeles.

6. What information distributed by the national government is of greatest benefit to you? Explain. Mention any news spread by your local or state government which you find interesting or valuable.

SECTION III. HOW NEWSPAPERS SPREAD INFORMATION

Two kinds of messages. Messages are usually of two kinds: first, those that concern only the persons directly affected; and second, those that interest the public in general. Information about events in one's home or in one's business is generally of the first sort; news about incidents in the community or state or of an event happening in some far-off country illustrates the second. The line between the two kinds of messages is, of course, indefinite; happenings of a personal nature, for example, are often of great interest to the public.

Persons separated from one another generally exchange messages by letter, telegram, or telephone. Information of interest to the public is usually spread by the printing press and, in late years, by the radio and the motion picture. The most important agency for satisfying our curiosity about what is going on, however, is the daily paper.



N. E. Numb. 17

The Boſton News-Letter.

Publiſhed by Authority.

From Monday April 17. to Monday April 24. 1704.

London Flying-Poſt from *Decemb.* 2*d.* to 4*th.* 1703.

LEtters from *Scotland* bring us the Copy of a Sheet lately Printed there, Intituled, *A ſeaſonable Alarm for* Scotland. *In a Letter from a Gentleman in the City, to his Friend in the Country, concerning the preſent Danger of the Kingdom and of the Proteſtant Religion.*

This Letter takes Notice, That Papiſts ſwarm in that Nation, that they traffick more avowedly than formerly, and that of late many Scores of Prieſts & Jeſuites are come thither from France, and gone to the North, to the Highlands & other places of the Country. That the Miniſters of the Highlands and North gave in large Liſts of them to the Committee of the General Aſſembly, to be laid before the Privy-Council.

From all this he infers, That they have hopes of Aſſiſtance from *France*, otherwiſe they would never be ſo impudent, and he gives Reaſons for his Apprehenſions that the *French* King may ſend Troops thither this Winter, 1. Becauſe the *Engliſh* & *Dutch* will not then be at Sea to oppoſe them. 2. He can then beſt ſpare them, the Seaſon of Action beyond Sea being over. 3. The Expectation given him of a conſiderable number to joyn them, may incourage him to the undertaking with fewer Men, if he can but ſend over a ſufficient number of Officers with Arms and Ammunition.

He endeavours in the reſt of his Letters to anſwer the fooliſh Pretences of the Pretender's being a Proteſtant and that he will govern us according to Law. He ſays, that being bred up in the Religion and Politicks of *France*, he is by Education a

THE FIRST SUCCESSFUL AMERICAN NEWSPAPER

This paper, first issued in 1704, was published once a week. Although it consisted of only a single sheet, it was ample for the news of the time.

Early newspapers. Newspapers of today grew out of news-letters which long before the printing press was invented were written by hand and sold to customers. The practice of distributing news in manuscript form was, in fact, continued in England until three hundred years ago. At that time three of the busiest letter-writers gave up writing by hand and began to use the printing press. Their plan proved so profitable that other news-writers soon adopted the same method, thus bringing the newspaper into existence.

Early newspapers were very different from the newspapers of today. They consisted of a single sheet of paper, printed on one side only. They contained no pictures, maps, cartoons, or comics. Their news items were usually very brief. The few advertisements which they published were for the most part much like our want advertisements of today and were seldom used by merchants or dealers. Early newspapers were usually issued only once a week. Their circulation and influence were small.

A NEWSPAPER STAND

Americans have an enormous appetite for news. In a single day forty million people buy newspapers, and a glance at this boy's stand gives some idea of the different magazines they purchase also.

Government control. In the early days of newspapers a person who printed news or opinions which the government did not like would usually be fined and imprisoned. Sometimes he would be whipped, branded with a hot iron, have his nose slit or his ears cut off. In most European countries government control of publications continued until less than a century ago, and in some lands it is practiced even today.

In the United States freedom of the press is protected by the first amendment to the Constitution, which forbids Congress to make any law "abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press." Similar clauses are in the constitutions of the states. Everyone is responsible, however, for anything he may say or publish.

Newspapers of today. Almost 2400 newspapers are published every day in the United States. Their combined circulation totals about 40,000,000 copies. In addition to the daily papers, more than 13,000 weekly papers and almost 4000 monthly magazines come regularly from the presses of this country. Newspapers contain from eight

EDITORIAL ROOM OF A NEWSPAPER OFFICE

Reporters, copy-writers, special writers, editors, and office boys are all on the staff of a large newspaper. Working at high tension, they collect, arrange, and put into final form the news which we read a few hours later.

to eighty pages. If printed in book form, a single Sunday issue would make a volume bigger than this textbook.

A modern newspaper contains news from all over the world. It tells about tragedy and war, politics and social affairs, commerce and industry, sport and literature, crime and scandal. Its columns contain accounts of tennis matches in France, elections in England, riots in China, earthquakes in Japan, education in the Philippines. It

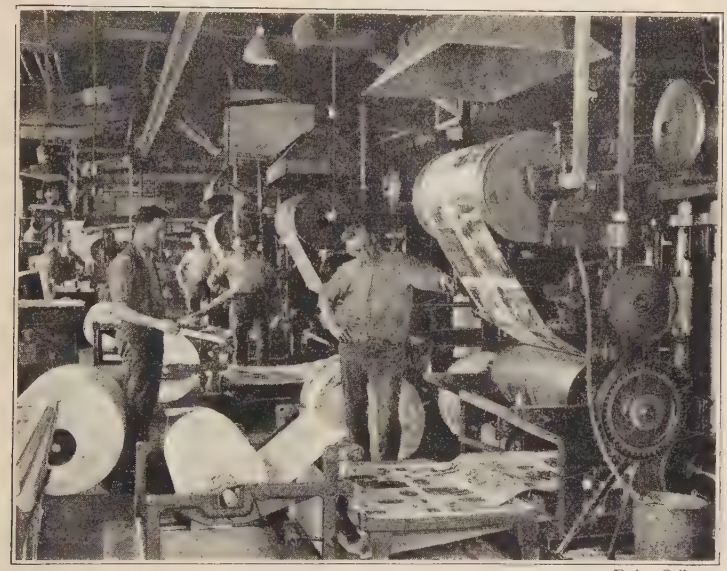
gives information about the weather, the crops, education, finance, religion. It tells us something concerning almost everything.

For local news a newspaper depends chiefly upon its staff reporters. They visit the city hall, the courthouse, the police stations, and all places where they think news can be secured. They are on hand when any important event, such as a political convention or a public gathering, is to occur. They get "the story" in case of accidents, fires, crimes, floods, and weddings.

News from other cities and countries is usually secured through the Associated Press or the United Press. These organizations are associations of newspapers which exchange news with one another. They also have hundreds of representatives in all parts of the world to collect items of interest and to report them to service centers which, in turn, send them to the papers belonging to the association. News from distant places is obtained also through special correspondents and foreign agencies and is forwarded quickly by telegraph, cable, or wireless. Without the help of such agencies the modern daily paper would be an impossibility.

Services of newspapers. In large countries popular government could not exist if people were unable to secure information about public needs and problems. The democracies of ancient Athens and Rome, it is true, were able to manage public affairs by means of assemblies in which the citizens met and discussed public questions; but only those who came to the assemblies could take part in the government. In like manner, as we have seen, people can govern a New England town; for they can gather in the town meeting, exchange information and opinions about community affairs, and decide public questions. But in larger governmental units like the United States such gatherings are impossible; hence other sources of information are necessary if the people are to rule.

The newspaper is just such a source. One of its main services is to give information about the activities of the government, the issues in elections, the qualifications of candidates for office, and the needs of the community, state, and nation. Most people do not have time to read the complete report of the department of health; the



Ewing Galloway

PRINTING THE PICTURE SECTION

The copper cylinder, which the man at the right is watching, prints the pictures on one side of the paper. The sheet then passes upward over the big roller to another copper cylinder, not shown in the picture, which prints the other side.

newspapers give them a summary of its contents. Voters frequently cannot attend meetings where the questions at stake in an election are discussed; newspapers of the right sort explain the issues. Citizens usually know little about the character, experience, and ability of candidates for office; the newspapers supply information about them. Few people have time to inquire personally concerning the needs of the local schools, parks, highways, and libraries.

They have even less opportunity to investigate state and national needs in conservation, taxation, and defense. On all such matters newspapers and magazines provide information and give reasons for or against suggested measures.

Not the least service rendered by newspapers is the reports they give of the speeches and votes of members of lawmaking bodies. Through their columns we may learn whether our representatives truly represent our views. In addition, newspapers provide business men with invaluable information about crops, shipments, and financial conditions.

Another great service of the press is to bring people close together. Strangers are merely persons we do not know; if we learn about them, they no longer seem strange to us. When the papers tell about famines in India, hurricanes in Florida, and earthquakes in California or Japan, we think of the sufferers as neighbors and desire to aid them in their trouble. Thus newspapers help to make the whole world kin; few agencies have greater influence for good or evil.

Need for caution in reading newspapers. Newspapers must be written and published in haste; with the best of intentions, therefore, they often make mistakes. Reporters at times are very contradictory in their accounts. Writing about his experience at a public gathering some years ago, one of the speakers said:

> The reporters sat immediately in front of the platform. One man wrote that the audience were so surprised by my speech that they received it in complete silence; another wrote that I was constantly interrupted by loud applause. The one wrote that during my opponent's speech I was constantly smiling; the other noticed that my face remained grave and without a smile. The one said that I grew purple red from excitement, and the other found that I grew white like chalk. The one stated that my critic while speaking walked up and down the large stage; the other declared that he stood all the while at my side and patted me in a fatherly way on the shoulder.[1]

[1] *McClure's Magazine*, XXIX, 536.

Understanding the conditions under which newspapers are prepared, a careful reader goes through their columns knowing that the items often contain errors and that one should be slow, therefore, in forming opinions or judgments concerning persons or controversies from material in the newspapers alone.

The best papers are usually fair and honest in their presentation of news. Some publications, however, ignoring their obligation to print nothing but the truth, use their columns to misrepresent, to arouse prejudice, and to mislead instead of inform the community. During a race riot in Chicago a few years ago one newspaper reported that several thousand men broke into the armory, that they stole hundreds of guns and ammunition, and that the police, in scattering the mob, injured fifty or more persons. The police record shows, however, that there was no clash with the mob, that no one entered the armory, that only a few windows were broken, and that the building itself contained no weapons. The effect of the news item, of course, was merely to increase public excitement and stimulate race hatred. Partisan newspapers are especially likely to be unfair in accounts of industrial warfare and political controversies.

Most newspapers are run for profit. Since they draw their income largely from advertising, they sometimes tend to suppress news to which their advertisers object. An instance of the sort was the refusal of a newspaper to print an article describing the defective fire escapes in a large store which advertised in its columns. Another item about an elevator accident in a department store — also an extensive advertiser — was published in part, but in small type, on an inner page and without the name of the establishment.

A person who wants the truth will, in the first place, read more than the headlines, for headlines are often misleading. In the second place, he will be on guard against partisan

newspapers; their main purpose is to uphold one side, right or wrong, and their items as a rule cannot be trusted. In the third place, he will learn to note the difference between fact and opinion, between proof and assertion, between the account of an eyewitness and an account based on rumor or hearsay. Finally, he will look over papers presenting different points of view and will also read one or more of the better weekly or monthly periodicals.

Summary. Through gestures and sounds man first learned to communicate with his neighbors. By the use of smoke puffs, beacon fires, and notched sticks he found how to send messages long distances. The invention of writing and, in the fifteenth century, of printing greatly increased his power to exchange thought. At the present time the telegraph, cable, telephone, and wireless enable him to send messages cheaply and swiftly to all parts of the world.

By the development of the postal service and by the activities of such agencies as the Weather Bureau, the Bureau of the Census, and the Market-News Service the national government aids greatly in distributing information. The chief agency for publishing news, however, is the press as represented in newspapers and magazines. With the help of trained workers the daily papers gather information from all over the world, put it in an interesting form, and furnish it to the community at low cost. Newspapers draw people together and thus help to unite the world. Since occasionally they make mistakes and since some papers do not always tell the truth, we should be careful when reading them to keep in mind Lord Bacon's advice: "Read not to contradict and confute, nor to believe and take for granted, but to weigh and consider."

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why is the newspaper discussed in this chapter? Name papers and magazines you usually read. Which are your favorites?

2. List the chief ways in which newspapers serve your community. How do newspapers make money? How does their source of income sometimes affect their policy?

3. Describe your method of reading a newspaper. Which part do you enjoy most? Which do you find most instructive? Name the parts your father and mother think most worth while.

4. Why does the government require the names of the owners to appear in newspapers and magazines? Name the chief owners of the newspapers in your community.

5. How do your local papers get news from out of town? Can you tell the politics of the local papers from their editorials? Explain. What improvements in the community do your local papers advocate?

6. Explain the quotation from Francis Bacon at the end of this chapter (p. 486).

7. *Reports for volunteers:*
   a. "The Message," in Forman's *Stories of Useful Inventions*, 246–265.
   b. "Beginning Life as a Printer," in Benjamin Franklin's *Autobiography*, chap. ii.

THINGS TO DO

1. Organize into committees and each committee act out a word in silence before the class. Vote on the best three dramatizations.

2. Two pupils volunteer to show how to wrap and address packages for the mail.

3. Pupils who have collections of postage stamps bring several rare stamps to class and tell why such stamps are interesting and valuable.

4. Ask three business men to rank the following in the order of value to their own business, — the telegraph, telephone, radio, postal service, and newspaper. Before inquiring, each member of the class should rank the agencies named in the order of their

importance to business and tabulate the results on the blackboard. Do likewise with the results of the interviews and compare with the class results.

5. Choose a committee to find how many persons are employed in the post office in your community; how they secured their positions (including the postmaster); what the value of local stamp sales was last year; and why the amount of stamp sales is important.

6. Get copies of a recent issue of all newspapers published in your community (the same date for all). Count the column inches which each paper devotes to the subjects listed in the following table and, after copying the form in your notebook, place your findings in the appropriate columns.

NEWSPAPER ANALYSIS

Names of Newspapers	Number of Pages	Government and Politics	Commerce, Labor, and Industry	Foreign Affairs	Sports and Amusements	Local News	Special Features (Comics, Fashions, Stories)	Advertisements

After you have made the foregoing analysis, write a short paragraph describing and characterizing each of your local papers.

7. From each of the newspapers secured for the preceding problem cut three of the longest news articles, two of the main editorials, one feature article, one display advertisement, one half column of classified advertisements (want ads), and four representative headlines. Label each clipping with the name and date of the newspaper from which it is taken and paste the clippings in your notebook.

Beneath each clipping write a short paragraph including answers to as many of the following questions as possible: (1) Is the item fact or opinion? (2) Is the item the account of an eyewitness or of someone else? (3) Is the headline accurate? (4) Is the item likely to have any effect on advertisers? (5) Why did the editor publish the item? After your analysis change the description of the papers as given in answer to No. 6 in any way you think desirable.

8. Compare accounts of one event as given in each of your papers (use those secured in No. 7) and list all differences you notice. Talk over results in class.

9. Examine your school paper or magazine and work out the percentage of space occupied by each of the following: (1) general school news; (2) athletics; (3) clubs and societies; (4) editorials; (5) jokes; (6) exchanges; (7) stories, essays, and poems; (8) advertisements. Suggest changes which would improve the publication.

10. Two boys (preferably Boy Scouts) show the class how to signal by the wig-wag system.

11. List the occupations required to send messages and distribute news.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "Blanketing the World with Wireless," *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, 169–176.
2. "Daily Mail in the Country," *ibid.*, 177–187.
3. "Cyrus W. Field, the Man who laid the Atlantic Cable," *Heroes of Progress*, 71–78.
4. "The Pony Express," M. Twain, *America's Message*, 60–62.
5. * "The Power of the Pen," B. J. Hendrick, *ibid.*, 225–242.
6. "The First Moving Picture," H. Croy, *In Our Times*, 134–139.
7. "Radio Achievements," H. Gernsback, *ibid.*, 170–174.
8. "The Story of our Air Mail," A. S. Burleson, *ibid.*, 202–207.
9. * "The Newspaper," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 259–269.
10. "Alexander Graham Bell, Inventor of the Telephone," *Modern Great Americans*, 8–21.
11. "The Telephone Directory," B. Braley, *The Worker and his Work*, 50.
12. "Sparks of the Wireless," W. S. Hiatt, *ibid.*, 51–63.
13. "The Post Office Department," *The American Government*, 131–146.
14. "The Man who First Mastered Wireless," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, V, 2145–2146.

15. "The World's History delivered at your Door," *ibid.*, VI, 2472–2475.
16. * "Travels and Adventures of a Letter," *ibid.*, VII, 2893–2898.
17. "Sending Messages and Distributing News," *Readings in Community Life*, Part IV, section 4.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Travel, Essay

1. * *A Man from Maine*, by Edward W. Bok. Scribner.
2. *The Makings of a Newspaper*, by J. Given. Holt.
3. *The Wireless Man*, by Francis A. Collins. Century.
4. *The Boy with the United States Mail*, by Francis W. Rolt-Wheeler. Lothrop.
5. *The United States Post Office*, by Daniel C. Roper. Funk.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *The Fast Mail*, by William Drysdale. Wilde.
2. * *Gallegher, and Other Stories*, by Richard H. Davis. Scribner.
3. * *Spreading the News*, by Lady Gregory. Putnam.
4. *Paul and the Printing Press*, by Sara W. Bassett. Little.
5. * *The Stolen Story and Other Newspaper Stories*, by Jesse L. Williams. Scribner.

CHAPTER XXIII

TRANSFERRING GOODS

Commerce builds cities, girds nations with railroads, and sends ships to plow all the seas. — J. WALTER DRAKE

SECTION I. THE DEVELOPMENT OF TRANSPORTATION

Early land transportation. Man's first beast of burden was himself. Upon his own shoulders or back he carried his belongings or dragged them behind him on poles or on branches of trees. Soon he began to tame animals and shifted the burden from his back to theirs, training them to carry loads or pull them on rude sleds. For this purpose the Arab used the camel; the Indian, the dog; the Hindu, the elephant; the South American, the llama; and the people of western Asia and parts of Europe, the horse and the ox.

The load which a man or an animal can carry is small, and the cost of transportation will therefore be high so long as such means of transfer are used. In our own Far West, when freight had to be carried largely by pack mules, the cost was one dollar a pound for every hundred miles. Under such conditions only goods having great value in comparison with their size can be carried any distance. Early land trade was always limited to articles like precious stones, spices, fine fabrics, gold, silver, furs, and tobacco.

When the wheel was invented and carts and wagons began to take the place of pack animals, the size of loads increased and the cost of transportation fell. Roads now became a necessity. Since highways were useful for war as well as for trade, ancient rulers often built them for

hundreds of miles throughout their dominions. The Roman emperors, for example, constructed a network of excellent stone roads in all parts of the empire, some of which are in use to this day.

Early water transportation. Water transportation is usually easier and less expensive than land transportation. From the earliest times, therefore, man has used rivers, lakes, and seas — nature's highways — to carry himself and his burdens from place to place.

At first man straddled a log and paddled it across a stream. Then tying a number of logs together, he formed a raft, pushing it along by poles in shallow water and by flat pieces of wood, or oars, in deep water, thus transporting himself and his goods with greater ease and comfort. Finally he cut out timbers and built a boat. In the beginning man depended for power on the current of streams and on his own muscle. Then, one day, the idea of harnessing the wind to his craft, even as he yoked an ox to a cart, came into his mind; the result was the sailboat.

Raft, rowboat, and sailing vessel were all invented by primitive man. With the passing of time the Phœnicians, Greeks, and Romans developed ships called galleys, combination rowboats and sailing vessels, which were used for both commerce and war. Centuries later the long, narrow, shallow craft of the Northmen proved well fitted for their daring raids up the rivers of France and England, and also served admirably for their bold voyages to Greenland and America.

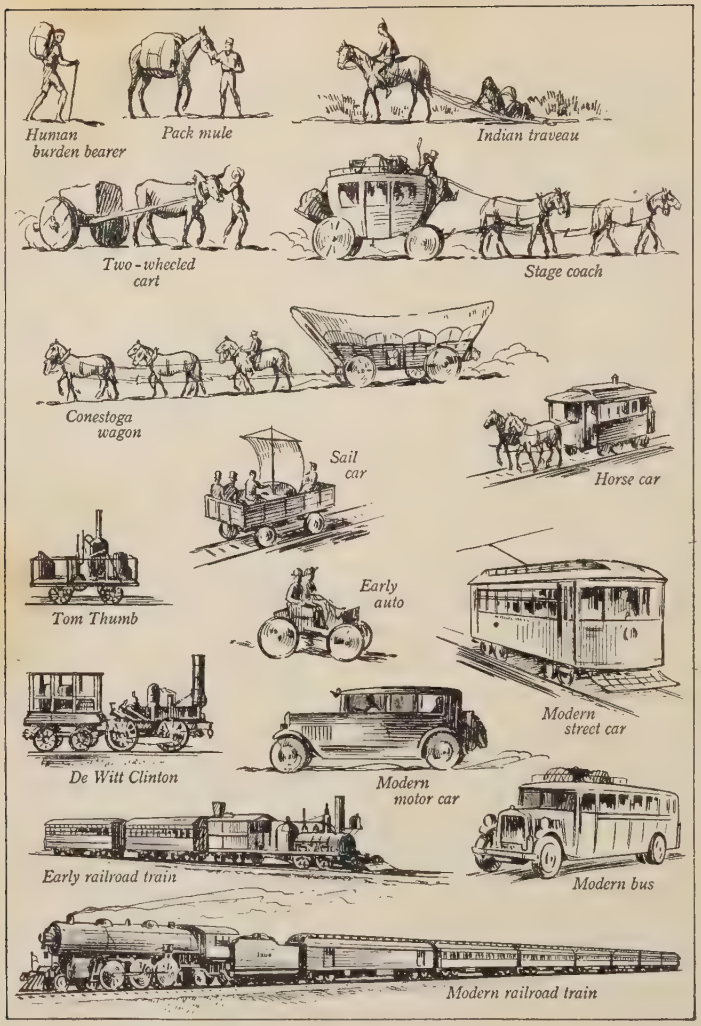
It was the Crusades, however, that brought great improvements in navigation. Many knights preferred to go to the Holy Land by sea rather than by land. Larger vessels than had previously been used were needed to carry the crusaders, their horses and supplies, to the East and to bring back the large cargoes of goods desired by people in the West. At the same time wider experience with the sea and the need for regular voyages to and from Palestine

taught sailors how to sail against the wind. The increased size of ships, improved methods of navigation, and the invention of the compass and astrolabe (an instrument for measuring latitude) not only proved great aids to commerce but also made possible the discovery of America and the voyages of such explorers as Cabot, Magellan, and Drake.

The Industrial Revolution and transportation. The three hundred years following Columbus saw little progress in either land or water transportation. The coming of the factory and the enormous increase in the output of manufactured goods, however, made better facilities essential. And with the need there came improvements. First of all, a man named McAdam invented a new method of road-building which has been known by his name ever since. Then canals were dug in such numbers that England became a network of waterways. Shortly afterwards artificial watercourses were constructed in the United States also.

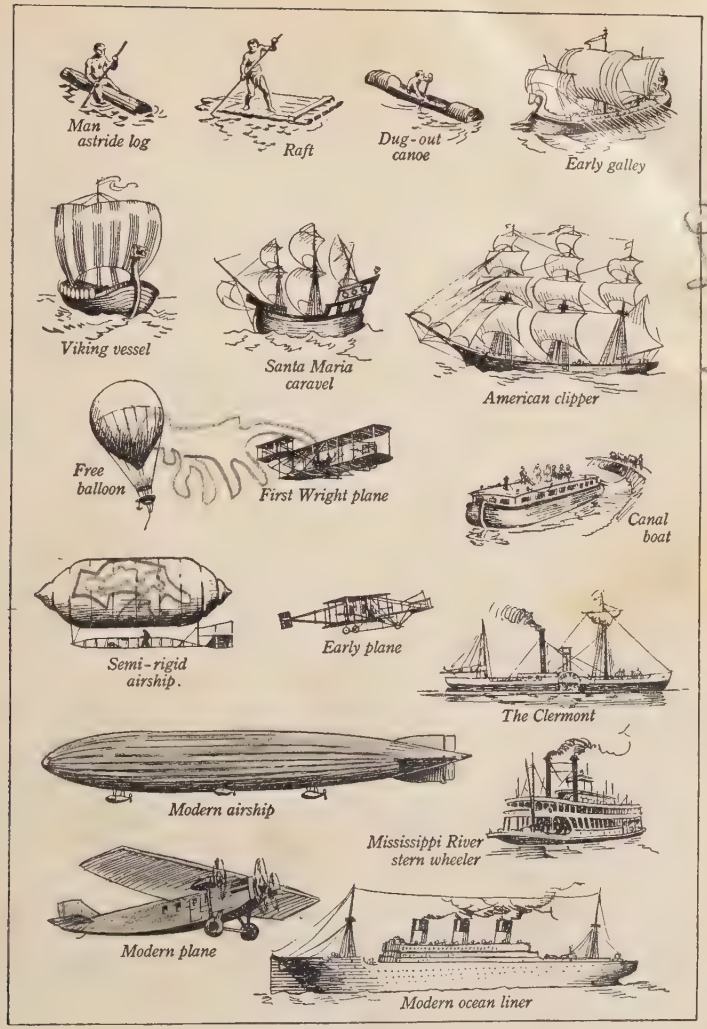
Most important of all was the railroad. Tracks of wood and iron, on which cars were drawn by mules, had long been used in mines; attempts were now made to employ them in surface transportation. Horse cars were tried; treadmills run by animals were introduced; even the use of sails was attempted. Finally, experiments with steam began. Prominent men ridiculed the effort, one of them saying that he would "cheerfully eat a stewed engine-wheel for breakfast" if a steam locomotive ever proved that it could go ten miles an hour. For a while, indeed, all attempts failed, but in 1814 George Stephenson invented a successful locomotive and a few years later built a road on which his engine astonished the world with a speed of thirty-six miles an hour.

Before many years railroads were built in all civilized countries. Speed increased, carrying capacity multiplied, and comforts in travel were introduced. Today one can ride by rail from New York to San Francisco in less than



THE STORY OF LAND TRANSPORTATION

The human carrier with his staff and burden is far removed from the modern railroad train which can transport a million times his load and travel fifty times his speed. Changes almost as great separate the early horse cars and the first autos from present-day trolley cars and motor vehicles.



CONQUERING THE SEA AND THE AIR

The story of man's conquest of the sea is full of adventure and romance. Rafts, sailboats, and steamers have all been exploited by men of courage and insight. Equally full of bravery and invention is the tale of man's victory in the air.

What do you regard as the seven chief inventions shown in the two pictures?

ninety hours without needing to miss a meal or lose a wink of sleep. A single freight train, it is said, can carry a heavier load than could be transported on the backs of one million men.

While land transportation was being improved, efforts to use steam in water transportation also were in progress. After a number of failures Robert Fulton in 1807 invented a steamboat which successfully made the trip up the Hudson from New York to Albany. Although many people declared that a steamship could never carry enough coal to cross the Atlantic by its own power, the *Sirius* accomplished the task in 1838 with no trouble and transported a large cargo into the bargain. One hundred years ago the fastest vessels required several weeks for the voyage from Europe to America; today our swiftest liners can make the trip in four and a half days.

Air transportation. The first successful attempt to travel through the air was in 1783, when two Frenchmen went aloft in a balloon and drifted with the wind for almost five miles before descending. Longer trips were taken in later years, but proved unsatisfactory because no way was known to guide the balloon. During the opening years of the twentieth century the defect was remedied by steering apparatus and by the use of gas engines as motive power. Progress in lighter-than-air craft was now rapid, and within a few years giant dirigibles made cruises of hundreds of miles. In 1924 the *ZR–3* crossed the Atlantic from Germany, completing the air voyage of five thousand and sixty-six miles in a little over eighty-one hours.

A modern dirigible can carry from thirty to forty tons and can cruise from four thousand to six thousand miles without a stop, but the vessel costs over $1,000,000, is of enormous size, and requires a large and expensive structure for housing. While the dirigible was being developed, therefore, efforts were also in progress to invent a smaller, cheaper, and faster flying machine. The result was the airplane.

No one man deserves all the honor for the airplane. Chief credit belongs probably to Samuel P. Langley, who by his experiments discovered important principles of heavier-than-air flying machines, and to Orville and Wilbur Wright, who in 1903 made a number of successful flights. From this time on improvements came rapidly. In 1919 a trip was made across the Atlantic, in 1924 an air voyage was taken around the world, and in 1927 Lindbergh made a nonstop flight alone from New York to Paris.

The use of aircraft for universal transportation remains for the future. The airplane has shown its importance in the delivery of letters and small parcels. Daily passenger service has been established between various cities in Europe and in America. We now have airplanes that carry tons of freight, fly two miles a minute, and cover distances of hundreds of miles without a stop. But in spite of such progress both danger and cost seem likely to delay for years to come the full use of aircraft for passengers and freight.

Seen as a whole, modern transportation rivals the magic carpets described in the *Arabian Nights*. Only a few years ago a journey around the world in eighty days seemed the mere fancy of a novelist's imagination; in 1925, however, two men, with the help of the railway, the liner, and the airplane, performed the feat in twenty-eight days.

Our inland waterways. The United States has probably the most extensive inland waterways of any country in the world. Of these the most important are, first, the Great Lakes and, second, the Mississippi River and its tributaries. Efforts are now in progress to combine the two into one great channel.

For many years the government has been deepening and straightening parts of our waterways, so that they may be used by modern vessels. But unfortunately gaps exist between the improvements, so that it is impossible to use the

system as a whole. Traffic to the sea from the Great Lakes, for example, must at present pass through a number of passages only 11 or 12 feet deep. Since most ocean vessels require from 25 to 30 feet of water, such passages cannot, of course, be employed.

To open our waterways to sea vessels requires two main developments. The first is the construction of an east-and-west waterway between the Great Lakes and the Atlantic deep enough to permit ocean vessels to sail from the Lake ports to Europe. The second is the opening of a north-and-south channel from the Gulf of Mexico up the Mississippi to Lake Michigan, with branches to Nashville, Cincinnati, Omaha, and Minneapolis, deep enough for seagoing ships.

The two routes, when completed, will bring every Lake port and many river ports in direct touch with world commerce and at the same time will unite twenty states into one great transportation system. This system, according to Secretary Herbert Hoover of the Department of Commerce, will enable farmers of the Middle West to ship grain to European ports at a saving in freight charges of from 6 to 12 cents a bushel, and will also greatly reduce the cost of transportation within the United States.

After years of effort Congress in 1927 authorized a portion of the Lakes-to-the-Gulf waterway. The project of the Lakes-to-the-Atlantic shipway is under consideration, but no action has yet been taken.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What do you suppose first gave primitive man the idea of making and using a wheel?

2. Are means of transportation of greater or less importance today than they were one hundred years ago? Explain. Are means of communication more or less important than formerly? Why?

3. Was the taming of the horse or the harnessing of steam the greater achievement? Give reasons.

4. Why is transportation more expensive by land than by water? Tell how the improvement of our inland waterways would affect your community.

5. Compare the Roman roads with the roads in your community. See Johnston's *Private Life of the Romans*, 282–285.

6. Tell what types of training you suppose the following men had to enable them to accomplish their deeds: George Stephenson; Robert Fulton; Samuel P. Langley; Wilbur Wright; Charles A. Lindbergh.

END BEGIN

Section II. Transportation in the Community

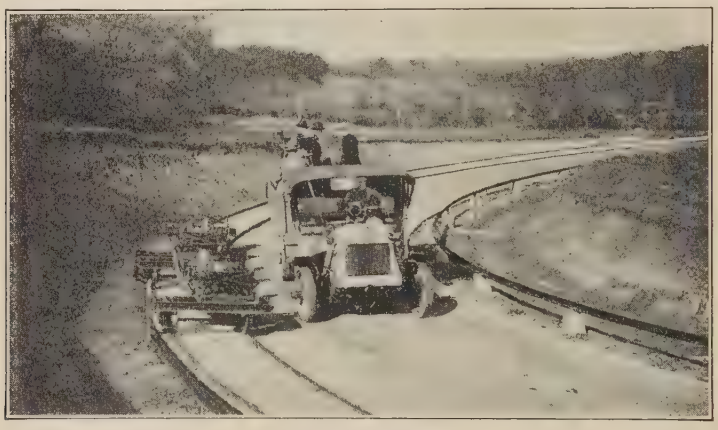
Roads and streets. Ever since primitive man tamed the ox and invented the wheel the most important factor in land transportation has been the road or street. At first such passageways were little more than cart tracks, with ruts so deep as to make progress almost impossible in bad weather. Today roads with hard surfaces, unaffected by rains or thaws, are found in most parts of the country.

Roads and streets enter into the cost of almost every article we use. Their condition, therefore, is an important item in transportation. Every farmer knows that a team can pull only half as heavy a load on a muddy road as on a concrete turnpike and that it requires twice as long and costs twice as much to take corn to town on a muddy road as on pavement. On an unimproved road the cost of hauling a ton one mile is 23 cents, while on a concrete turnpike the expense is only 13 cents. And what is true of a team is equally true of a truck or automobile.

Road-building enterprises. Such facts and the increased use of the automobile have caused numerous road-building campaigns in all parts of the country during recent years. In some communities farmers have formed road-building clubs; in others public-spirited citizens have raised large sums of money for roads; in still others the local governments have levied heavy taxes and have issued bonds to

secure funds for highways; in many instances the state governments have given financial aid to counties that will build improved roads, and through state highway commissions have assisted in the work of construction. Cities also have raised large sums for streets and boulevards. Most states use taxes on gasoline and automobiles as road funds.

Local passenger transportation. In small towns local transportation causes no great difficulty. If necessary, people



TESTING THE ROAD

The Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering of the United States Department of Agriculture has designed a circular track on which an electric car and a truck that will run without drivers test the wear of different kinds of concrete roads and reveal the causes of wave formation on concrete pavements.

can walk from one part of the community to another in a short time and with little trouble. But when a town becomes a city or a city a metropolis, transportation becomes a serious problem. Either the inhabitants must live crowded within a small area near their work or a cheap, rapid means of travel must be developed. With the growth of large cities both results have occurred; congested districts called slums have appeared, and new methods of transportation have come into existence.

The first of the new methods was the street car drawn

by horses. Cars operated by underground cables were the next invention; they proved especially useful in cities like Pittsburgh and San Francisco, where steep hills are common. Then came the electric trolley car (1884); in a short time it displaced all but a few horse and cable cars, and today furnishes transportation for most city people.

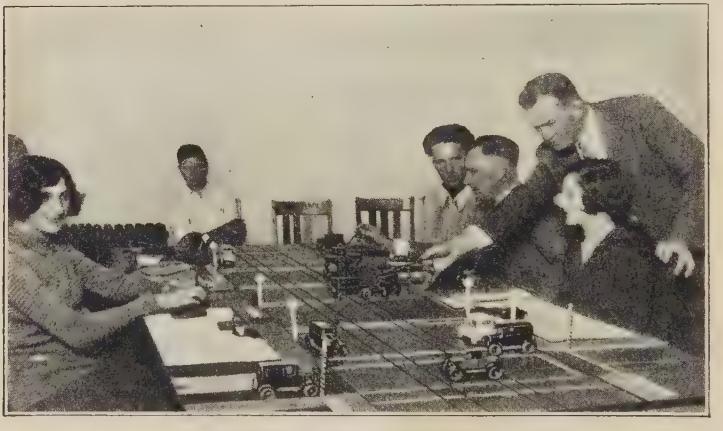
TRAFFIC REGULATION

The signal lights in the middle of this busy street direct the movements of these cars. How would parking at the curb affect the traffic?

In modern cities it has proved necessary to supplement surface cars with underground and elevated lines. London and Paris have excellent subways; New York, Philadelphia, and Boston have both underground and elevated roads; Chicago has underground tracks for freight, but depends on surface and elevated cars and on the suburban service of the railways for passenger traffic. Bus lines also provide transportation in our cities and to many districts in the country.

The automobile, motor bus, and street-railway lines — surface, subway, and elevated — make possible the great city of today. Their cheap, speedy service enables people to dwell miles from the dust and noise of the manufacturing and business sections and to enjoy something of the health and beauty of the out-of-doors.

Traffic and parking. Most cities were laid out when business buildings were only three or four stories high and when



TESTING APPLICANTS FOR DRIVERS' LICENSES

In Los Angeles an applicant for a driver's license is placed at a large table containing miniature streets, boulevard stops, fire plugs, and railroad crossings. He is required to show his knowledge of traffic regulations and his ability as a driver by guiding a toy auto through the tiny streets on which appear ambulances and other automobiles.

vehicles were few and were drawn by horses. Under such conditions the streets, even though narrow, could easily take care of the traffic. But now that we have skyscrapers forty stories high, and thousands of automobiles, trucks, and taxicabs, the business streets are crowded and traffic is at times almost at a standstill. Parking at the curb becomes impossible, because it reduces the width of thoroughfares already too narrow; at times, therefore, parking almost stops traffic.

To meet the problem, most cities have established numerous one-way streets and have forbidden parking in business sections during hours when many people are going to and from work. A few cities have provided storage space for cars in neighboring parks and in municipal garages. But there is also need of wider thoroughfares and, in some instances, of traffic subways and two-level streets in downtown districts.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How wide are your business streets? residence streets? Are they wide enough? Should all cities have streets equally wide? Explain.

2. Tell what is being done to improve roads in your county. What occupations have developed through road-building?

3. Name the kinds of local transportation in your community. Compare fares and services with those in other cities you have visited. Can you explain the differences?

4. What would need to be done to have "bottle-neck" entrances to your community widened? Are your streets and highways kept in good repair? Are they properly lighted? If not, who is responsible for the neglect?

Section III. Government Control of Transportation

Local action. So long as loads were carried on the backs of men or animals, a narrow path or trail served as a passageway. The invention of the cart and wagon, however, made it necessary for the community to build roads; for, although a man can become the owner of a mule without difficulty and can also usually provide himself with a wagon, he faces a different problem when it comes to a highway. Here the united effort of the community is needed; even if it were not so, it would be absurd for every man to build his own road.

Until recent years the local communities were the chief builders of streets and highways. In the old days, it is true, turnpikes were occasionally constructed by private companies, and tolls were charged for their use. But as a rule the cost of roads has been borne by the locality, and their use has been free to all.

National action. When settlements began west of the Allegheny Mountains, a new problem arose. People on the frontier could get along with trails or could make the roads which they needed in their immediate neighborhood, but they were unable to build highways to the Eastern settlements, hundreds of miles away. It would have been unfair also for the West to bear the cost alone, since such roads would be of equal benefit to the East.

Occasionally private companies tried to solve the problem, as in the cutting of the Wilderness Trail to Boonesborough. But the task was usually too costly, and as the years passed the Westerners sent repeated appeals for aid to the national government. Eastern communities also began to ask for help to improve their harbors and rivers. In response to such calls from 1806 on, Congress voted money from time to time for dredging harbors, deepening rivers, and building highways. But after a few years Presidents Madison and Monroe put a temporary stop to the work by vetoing the appropriations, and state governments then began to take up the task.

With the growth of the railroads, however, national aid was renewed. Thousands of acres of public lands and millions of dollars of public funds were given to help private companies construct lines, especially in the unsettled portions of the West. For example, Congress gave the Union Pacific Railway a strip of land four hundred feet wide from Council Bluffs, Iowa, to San Francisco, and in addition granted the company twenty sections of land for each mile of track laid, as well as large sums of money in United States bonds; in all, the Union Pacific is said to have

received from the government $830,000,000, although the enterprise from the beginning was private property. Not until 1915, when Congress voted to build a railway in Alaska, was a railroad of any consequence owned by the United States.

The postal service, also a government undertaking, has always used private agencies in its work. In early days

Ewing Galloway

THE PANAMA CANAL

The building of the Panama Canal has been called "the greatest liberty man has ever taken with nature." One of the most difficult problems encountered by the army engineers who directed construction was the Gaillard Cut shown in the picture.

mail was transported in stagecoaches owned by private individuals; in the Far West it was carried by pony-express riders employed by a private company; today it is taken over privately owned railroads in accordance with contracts which the government has with the companies. The Panama Canal, on the other hand, was from the first a government enterprise.

END

Ownership. With a few exceptions, then, streets and roads have been built and owned by the community. Telephone, telegraph, and street-car lines, on the other hand, have usually belonged to private companies. Although constructed with government help, the railroads, with rare exceptions, have also been private property. Rivers and lakes have always been free to people who cared to use them, but canals have often been under private ownership and control. Thus for the most part the means of communication and transportation, upon which everyone depends, are owned by private individuals.

Natural monopolies. The business of carrying messages, people, and merchandise rests upon a different basis from the business of the butcher or grocer. If you find the butcher's meat poor, his charges high, or his manners rude, you can buy from another butcher; that is, competition among the dealers enables you to secure meat of high quality, at a fair price, and with good service. But as a rule you cannot go to another street-car line if you find charges high or service bad, because the community generally contains only one such company.

Where rival telephone or street-car companies exist side by side, they are both expensive and irritating, because they give a kind of service that cannot be duplicated with advantage. If two telephone companies operate in the same city, a grocer must subscribe to both lines to accommodate his customers, some of whom have one line and some the other; but two telephones are expensive. Moreover, where two companies exist, friends often find it hard to telephone to one another, since the first may be a patron of one company and the second a patron of the other company. Accordingly most cities prefer to have only one telephone system.

But unless the community owns or controls the system, the company can charge whatever rates it decides are most profitable and give whatever service it pleases, for it will

have a monopoly of the telephone business; that is, it will be the only agency in the community enabling people to telephone to one another. For its own protection, therefore, society must own or control enterprises which are natural monopolies.

Franchises. The most common natural monopolies in local communities are waterworks, telephones, gas works, electric-light plants, and street-car lines. Since in our country such agencies have usually developed under private ownership, the community has tried to safeguard its interests by franchises and by regulation.

As used here, a franchise is a privilege granted by society to an individual or company to do certain things under given conditions. Eager to secure telephones, electric lights, and street cars, local governments at first often granted private companies the use of the streets and other privileges without sufficiently guarding the rights of the community. Companies were sometimes given franchises running for ninety-nine years, occasionally for nine hundred and ninety-nine, and were also allowed great freedom in fixing rates and determining the quality of service. Fortunately such unwise grants were few.

Watered stock. Public-service corporations in the past often "watered" their securities; that is, they issued stock and bonds in excess of the real value of their property. Several years ago the cost of replacing the Chicago street railway companies was estimated at $45,000,000, whereas the market value of the securities issued on the property was over $120,000,000. Brand Whitlock, formerly mayor of Toledo, declared on one occasion that the actual investment of the street-railway company in Toledo was about $5,000,000, whereas the company was capitalized at almost $30,000,000.

To pay interest on their securities, the companies often levied high rates and gave poor service. When in danger of losing the franchises which made their profits possible,

they at times bribed city officials, broke the laws, and spent large sums of money to elect members of city councils and even of state legislatures who would vote for bills that they desired and against measures that they disliked.

Regulation. For the most part the evils referred to have been lessened or ended by public-utility commissions such as now exist in all the states in the Union except one. The powers of the commissions vary widely, but in most instances they control rates, service, and the issue of stock and bonds. In fixing rates they usually allow the companies to charge enough to make a fair profit and to cover taxes, running expenses, and the upkeep of equipment. In case of dissatisfaction with the decisions of the commission, an appeal may be made to the courts.

Regulation of interstate commerce. Railroads, telegraphs, and other agencies engaged in commerce between the states also present difficult problems of control, for they too are natural monopolies and, with the exception of the Post Office, have usually developed as private enterprises.

The first railroads in the United States were short lines, their rates varied, and their tracks were of different widths. In 1840 a carload of freight from Albany to Buffalo had to travel over eleven different lines, and unless the car had its wheels changed to fit the different tracks, the goods had to be moved from one car to another every time the shipment changed railway lines.

The advantages of combination led Cornelius Vanderbilt, about 1870, to unite different railroads between New York City and Lake Erie into one company, the New York Central. The experiment proved profitable, and within a few years the plan was adopted by other men. In the Northwest James J. Hill built up a railway system of thousands of miles, and E. H. Harriman extended the Union Pacific from a road of eighteen hundred miles to a system of twenty-three thousand miles. Telephone companies and telegraph lines were also united into a few large companies.

Although such combinations usually reduced the cost of operation, they often proved dangerous to the people who were obliged to use them. Railroads, for example, ruined shippers and even entire communities at times by granting lower rates or better service to some than to others.

Many states, seeing such injustices, passed laws for regulating the railroads within their own boundaries. But state laws could not control traffic between the states, since that power belongs to the national government. Accordingly, in 1887, Congress established the Interstate Commerce Commission, a body whose duty is to investigate questions of interstate commerce affecting railroads, canals, steamship lines, and express, telephone, and telegraph companies. No rate charged by any of these can be changed without the approval of the Commission, all issues of bonds and stocks are under its regulations, and the records of the companies must be open at all times to its examination.

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THE ALASKAN RAILWAY

To aid in the development of the natural resources of Alaska, Congress in 1914 provided for the building of a railway to be owned and operated by the government. The line climbs and tunnels mountains containing both gold and coal, and at the present time extends over five hundred miles into the interior.

But evils still exist, and some people feel that no form of regulation, however complete, will solve the problem. According to them, the final outcome must be government ownership and operation.

Government ownership. The believers in public ownership maintain that it has succeeded in Europe and also in places where it has been tried in the United States. This is true, they say, particularly of water-works and electric-light plants, which in many American communities belong to the city. Here, they declare, rates are lower, services better, and politics purer than under private ownership.

Opponents of government ownership, on the other hand, insist that the plan would destroy progress, prove wasteful, and cause political corruption. They maintain that public ownership has failed in most communities where it has been tried. They believe that the cure for existing evils lies in government regulation.

Summary. By the development of land and water transportation man has compelled all sections of the globe to serve his needs. At first his own beast of burden, he has shifted the load to the backs of animals and has even forced the winds, steam, and electricity to move his belongings from place to place. In local communities his chief agencies in transportation today are roads, streets, trolley cars, automobiles, and bus lines, while in larger areas the railroads and steamship lines are most important.

Of the different problems which have arisen in connection with man's conquest of space, the most difficult are the furnishing of cheap, rapid transportation in cities and the question of control. Cheap transportation may apparently be provided by surface, subway, and elevated lines and by wider use of the automobile and motor bus; but traffic congestion and space for parking, especially in business sections, present increasing difficulty. Opinions differ concerning the control of transportation, some experts maintaining that private ownership with public regulation is desirable, others insisting that government ownership is necessary. Wider experience is needed before either method can be considered a complete success.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What benefit did the East receive from the building of roads to the West? Why do most of our great railways run east and west?

2. In Chicago part of the income of the street-railway companies must be paid to the city. This makes necessary a higher fare than would otherwise be necessary. Is the plan wise? Give reasons.

3. What is a natural monopoly? Name any natural monopolies in your community and tell who owns and controls them.

4. Does the country or city receive greater benefit from the railways? Which depends more upon them? Which could live more easily without them?

5. Does a railroad charge more for hauling a carload of coal than for hauling a carload of machinery? Should there be any difference? If so, why?

6. Give three reasons why the Great Lakes should be connected with both the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico by deep-sea waterways. How would such projects affect your community?

7. Does your state have a tax on gasoline? If so, find what the tax amounts to in your county and what is done with the money.

THINGS TO DO

1. Make a scrapbook of pictures, clippings, cartoons, and drawings illustrating the development of transportation. Arrange your material in suitable chapters or divisions, giving in each instance an introductory paragraph explaining the content and organization of the chapter or division.

2. Select a committee to report on the transportation facilities of your community. Include in the inquiry the kinds of transportation; the history of each; the extent of each in mileage, passengers, freight, and income; and the method of government control. After the committee reports, draw up a list of the main transportation needs of your community.

3. Choose a committee to investigate your local parking and traffic regulations. After it reports, observe on at least three different streets the way in which the regulations are obeyed and exchange your findings in class.

4. After discussion of the results reported in No. 3, write a short article summing up the findings and conclusions of the class, or write an editorial upon traffic rules in your community. Choose by vote the best account and the best editorial and, if your teacher and principal approve, send the articles to the local newspapers.

5. Draw a map of your community and the surrounding country, showing the main highways into town, and after investigation, indicate by a red cross every entrance which is so narrow as seriously to delay traffic.

6. Bring to class a list of all road signs and road directions that you can find on the streets or roads within one-half mile of your home. Suggest needed improvements and work out plans to supply the need.

7. The older and larger boys organize as a junior patrol squad to guard the crossings in the vicinity of your school. Choose a committee to consult the chief of police and secure his advice and approval for your plan.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "How Nature Affects Primitive Transportation," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 187–192.
2. * "The Mastery of the Air," *ibid.*, 202–211.
3. "Linking Country and City," *ibid.*, 314–322.
4. "Samuel Pierpont Langley, Inventor of the First Heavier-than-Air Flying Machine," *Heroes of Progress*, 217–227.
5. "The Balloonist." *Careers of Danger and Daring*, 87–129.
6. "Two Masters of Flight," F. L. Darrow, *ibid.*, 123–131.
7. "Building the Union Pacific Railway," *In Our Times*, 119–124.
8. * "A Trip in a Submarine," F. Bishop, *ibid.*, 154–159.
9. "Trans-Atlantic Flight," Anonymous, *ibid.*, 159–165.
10. * "Smoothing a Nation's Roads," *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, 143–154.
11. "Interstate Commerce Commission," *The American Government*, 381–394.
12. "The Soaring Motor Car of the Air," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, I, 59–68.
13. "The Father of the Steamboat," *ibid.*, III, 1381–1382.
14. "Travel by Land, Sea, and Air," *ibid.*, VI, 3524–3527.
15. * "Picture Story of Transportation," *ibid.*, X, 3998.
16. "Transferring Goods," *Readings in Community Life*, Part IV, section 5.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. *Sailing the Seas*, by James Baldwin and Winifred W. Livengood. American Book Company.
2. *Life on the Mississippi*, by Mark Twain. Harper.
3. *The Story of the American Merchant Marine*, by Willis J. Abbot. Dodd.
4. *Roughing It*, by Mark Twain. Harper.
5. * *Working my Way around the World*, by Harry A. Franck. Century.
6. *Romance of Modern Locomotion*, by Archibald Williams. Lippincott.
7. *From Trail to Railway through the Appalachians*, by A. P. Brigham. Ginn.
8. *Stagecoach and Tavern Days*, by Alice M. Earle. Macmillan.
9. *Boys' Book of Railroads*, by J. R. Howden. Stokes.
10. * *Ten Thousand Miles with a Dog Sled*, by Hudson Stuck. Scribner.
11. *The Story of the Ship*, by Gordon Grant. Bradley.
12. *The Railroad Builders*, by John Moody. Yale.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. * *The Dark Frigate*, by Charles B. Hawes. Atlantic Monthly.
2. * *Around the World in Eighty Days*, by Jules Verne. Scribner.
3. *The Iron Trail*, by Rex Beach. Harper.
4. * *Typhoon*, by Joseph Conrad. Doubleday.
5. *Caleb West*, by F. Hopkinson Smith. Houghton.
6. * *The Nerve of Foley*, by Frank H. Spearman. Scribner.

CHAPTER XXIV

PROBLEMS IN WORKING TOGETHER

Then let us pray that come it may,
As come it will for a' that,
That man to man, the world o'er,
Shall brothers be for a' that.

ROBERT BURNS

SECTION I. WHY WE HAVE INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Laborers and capitalists. In the days of the spinning wheel and hand loom industrial disputes as we know them did not exist. At that time workmen usually owned their own tools, worked in their own shops, set their own hours, and kept the profits of the business or bore its losses. But today goods are made in factories by people who work for wages and who as a rule do not own the buildings in which they work, the machines they operate, or the goods they produce. In the old days people were at the same time both laborers and capitalists; now they have separated in general into two large groups, laborers and capitalists.

The separation of the worker from the capitalist is the basis of most industrial trouble. From the division come the chief problems of the modern world of work — the problems of working conditions, of control of industry, and of the sharing of profits between the workers and the men who furnish the tools and materials used in production.

Differences in wealth. Great variations in the wealth of different persons have always existed; but the gulf which separates them was never so wide as today. On the one hand, thousands often have barely enough to eat from day to day; on the other hand, many have yearly incomes

greater than the wealth of kings. According to a recent estimate, nine tenths of the families in the United States earn less than $1500 a year; but at the same time twenty thousand have incomes exceeding $50,000 annually, and two hundred receive over $1,000,000. At the one extreme, two thirds of the people own only one twentieth of the national wealth; at the other extreme, two per cent own more than three fifths.

When hard-working people learn of such differences, when they see the income alone of a single capitalist exceed the combined wealth of one hundred thousand workmen, it is not strange that they sometimes become discontented. And when they find that with the aid of machinery an ordinary laborer now produces hundreds of times as much as a worker in far-off days, they naturally think that that laborer should receive hundreds of times as much. Since such is not the case, workers sometimes conclude that the present division of the products of industry is unfair.

Development of labor organizations. The factory at first brought much suffering to the laboring class. Since a few workers with the new machines could turn out goods which previously had required the labor of hundreds to produce, men had trouble in securing work. Women and children were employed because they could run the machines as well as or better than men and because they would work for less pay. Wages were low and hours of labor were long. Children only six or seven years of age, as we have seen, often toiled from eight to fourteen hours a day; women, from fourteen to sixteen; men, sometimes as long as eighteen. Working conditions were bad, the machinery was dangerous, and the death rate, especially among children, was high.

Against such conditions protests were raised, and a few reforms came. The workers soon learned, however, that they could accomplish little when standing alone, and as a result they began to act in groups. The new plan proved its value almost from the first, for, although an employer

could snap his fingers at the complaints of a single employee or could get along without him altogether if need be, his freedom of action was lessened when the workmen were united. To discharge one of them, then, might mean the closing of the entire plant. A realization of the advantages of union thus led to the growth of labor organizations.

At first the workers in each trade, such as printing or carpentry, formed their own unions and had little to do with other unions. As separate organizations, however, they discovered what they had already learned as individuals: they could not accomplish much when acting alone. Accordingly they began to form federations, which gradually became national and in some instances international in character. In 1881 these unions formed an organization known as the American Federation of Labor, which is now the most important labor group in the United States.

The American Federation of Labor does not have individuals as members, but is a loose federation of unions with a combined membership of about three million. Most of its adherents are skilled workers. It furnishes a means for the laboring class to act together whenever they believe their interests are at stake. The federation has done much to increase wages, shorten hours, and better the working conditions of laborers and to widen their educational opportunities.

Capitalistic combinations and employers' associations. The years which saw the growth of labor organizations witnessed also the development of giant combinations known as "trusts." In 1882 the Standard Oil Company was organized; within a short time the Sugar Trust and the Copper Trust also were formed. Then, about 1900, the United States Steel Corporation was organized, with an employed force in 1928 of two hundred thousand men.

During the same years employers formed associations to deal for the most part with questions relating to labor.

In 1886 the General Managers' Association was organized, and several years later the Association of American Manufacturers and the National Metal Trades Association were also established. These and similar groups are composed of employing firms. Each association attempts to prevent difficulties between employers and employees. As a rule it supports any member who has trouble with his workers, giving him financial aid, helping him to secure new employees in case of strikes, and assisting him in filling his orders. Employers' associations, like labor unions, also try to accomplish their purpose through legislation.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Choose a committee of the class to find the steps that a labor union or an employers' association might take in order to secure a law it desired.

2. How did people come to be divided into two groups — laborers and capitalists? How does the division cause the problem of capital and labor?

3. Does the invention of labor-saving machinery help the workingman? If so, why have workingmen sometimes destroyed new labor-saving devices?

4. Name the chief advantages of labor unions; the main disadvantages.

5. Explain briefly three of the main problems of capital and labor.

Section II. How Industrial Conflicts are Waged

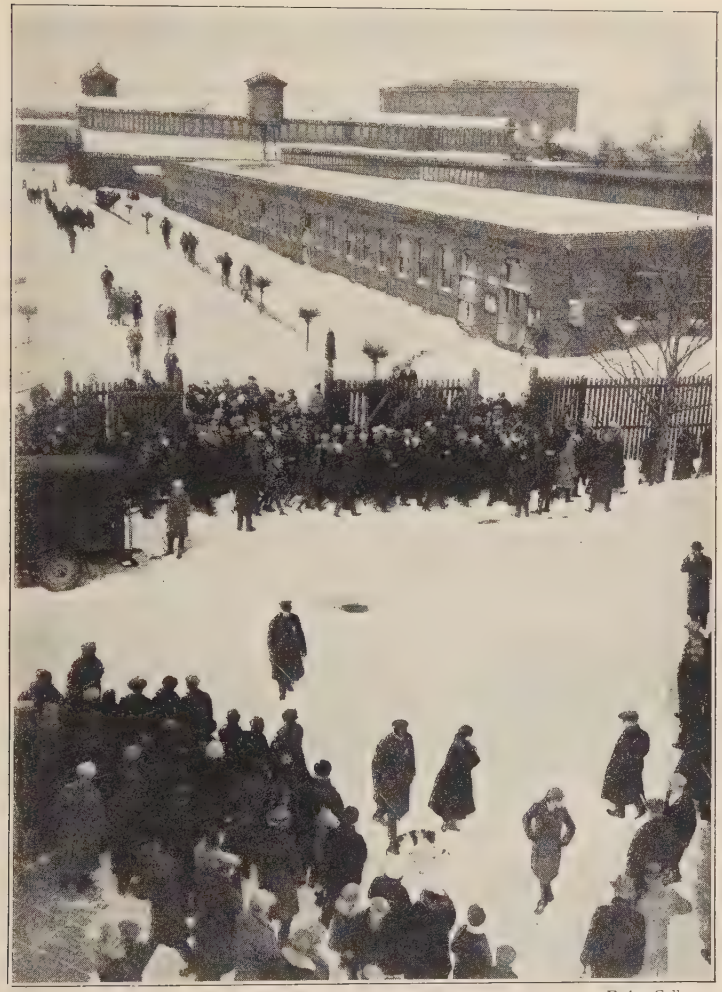
Industrial warfare. War is action by which one group of people attempts to force another group to do its will or submit to its dictates. As used in industry, such attempts may be attended by violence or they may not. Industrial conflicts are usually brought to a conclusion by means other than the destruction of life and property.

But, unfortunately, violence sometimes occurs in industrial disputes. In more than one controversy laborers have blown up bridges, set fire to buildings, and attacked strike-breakers. Employers, too, have in some instances hired thugs to "beat up" labor leaders and have stuffed ballot boxes to elect company representatives to public office.

Causes of industrial strife. Employers and employees usually settle their troubles in a friendly way, but their disputes sometimes result in long, fierce struggles. As a rule the contests have started in disputes over wages, hours, working conditions, or recognition of the union. Generally several causes are behind industrial controversies.

The closed shop. The weapons which the workers use most frequently to enforce their demands are the closed shop, the boycott, and the strike. In the closed shop only union members are employed. In such an establishment a labor organization is in a strong position to secure what it wants from an employer, because it can control production by withdrawing the men as a group or by putting them back as a group. In the open shop, where nonunion laborers are generally employed, an employer can be more independent. Under such circumstances he can usually run the industry as he pleases; for if the union men quit, he can fill their places with nonunion men. Unionists naturally prefer the closed shop, whereas employers for equally clear reasons favor the open shop.

The boycott. A boycott, in an industrial conflict, is a refusal by a group to buy goods from a person or firm that has aroused its hostility. Usually the boycotters try to get the community also to refuse to purchase from such individuals. Labor journals at times have printed the names of companies which they regard as unjust to workers in columns headed "Unfair" or "We don't patronize," but in some instances the courts have declared this kind of boycott illegal. A successful boycott seriously injures and may even destroy the business of an employer.



Ewing Galloway

A STRIKE

Violence during a strike, whether by workers or employers, is condemned by all good citizens.

The strike. The chief weapon of labor is the strike. In a strike the laborers simply quit work. If there are no other workers to take their places, the mine or factory must close. The struggle between an employer and strikers is generally won by the side that can hold out longest. Since the workers as a rule have only their wages to live on, their ability to continue a strike depends on how much they have saved; on their success in securing goods from the butcher and grocer on credit; on whether they can postpone the payment of rent, if they are tenants; and on how long the union can pay strike benefits, if they are organized workmen.

In such a contest the employer has many advantages. His family does not suffer from want; his own personal comforts are not affected; and his savings enable him to stand the strain longer than the workers can. But if the strike prevents him from filling his orders, he will lose the profits from his sales and, in addition, may also lose his customers. Indeed, if the strike continues long enough, he may even lose the savings of a lifetime. Although an employer, then, need not fear hunger or cold as much as the strikers do, he usually has more at stake.

If there are no workers to take the places of the strikers, a strike is usually a peaceful affair. But, as a rule, workers are more numerous than jobs; consequently, whenever a strike occurs, there are usually persons eager to step into the vacancies. Some of these, known as strike-breakers, make it a business to help employers to break up strikes.

To prevent people from taking their jobs, strikers often resort to picketing; that is, they station workers around the factory or mine to keep others from working in their stead. At first the pickets generally try persuasion. If this fails, they sometimes use threats and even attack those who wish to work, forgetting the words of Eugene Debs that "a man who will destroy property or violate law is an enemy and not a friend to the cause of labor." The use of

violence is a violation of law and always hurts the cause of the strikers by stirring up public feeling against them. A strike is seldom won when public sentiment is against it.

The lockout. The chief weapons of employers are the lockout, the blacklist, and the injunction. The lockout is the opposite of the strike. Instead of the men's quitting work, the employer dismisses them and locks the doors of the plant; by such action he hopes to force the workers to accept the wages and conditions which he lays down. As in a strike, victory generally comes to the side that can hold out longest.

The blacklist. The blacklist is a boycott of workers whom the employer regards as undesirable employees, usually because of activities during labor difficulties. Since employers often send the names of such persons to one another, a man who has been blacklisted finds it almost impossible to get work unless he applies under a false name. "The blacklist," says one writer, "will pursue a man for years, will drive him out of an honest trade, will follow him across the continent, and will everywhere defeat his efforts to gain a livelihood." The blacklist is a cruel and unfair method of taking away a man's chance to earn a living.

The injunction. During late years the most effective weapon of employers has been the injunction, which is an order by a court forbidding or requiring a certain act. If an injunction is disobeyed, the violator may be punished by fine or imprisonment, or by both, as the court may decide.

Employers frequently secure injunctions against strikers to keep them from interfering with employees who wish to remain at work and to prevent them from damaging company property. In addition, employers sometimes obtain injunctions forbidding strikers to say or write anything to persuade employees to leave their jobs or to influence anyone from accepting employment with the concern against which the strike is being waged. In a few instances

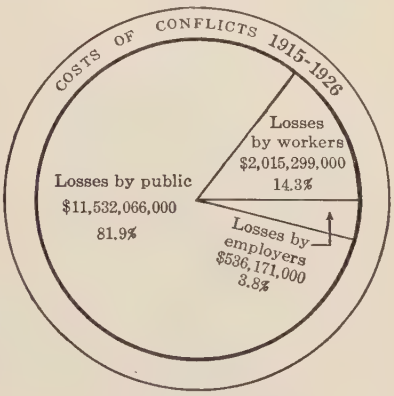
workers, too, have used the injunction to force employers to live up to agreements on wages, hours, or working conditions.

Fair play. Labor organizations and employers' associations alike have been justly criticized at times for their activities and methods. Labor organizations, on the one hand, have used threats and violence to force men to join the union and to compel employers to establish the closed shop. Employers' associations, on the other hand, have required employees to sign contracts binding the men neither to join a union nor to approve the forming of such an organization; they have also hired detectives to spy on employees and to report the plans and activities of the union. Certainly, to force a man to join a private organization against his will or to compel an employer to hire none but union workers is as contrary to American notions of fair play as is the employment of spies and thugs to prevent men from joining a union or to force them to work under whatever conditions and for whatever wages employers see fit to offer.

Laborers and employers have both been guilty of waste in production by limiting the output. The unions have at times restricted the use of machinery, have required the employment of two persons to do what one alone could do as well or better, and have reduced the amount of work employees could do easily without injury to health or an increase in working hours. Employers, in like manner, have repeatedly bought up patents and prevented the use of devices that would lower the cost of production; they have also agreed with one another to limit the output in order to keep prices up and thus reap higher profits. When either employees or employers make the production of goods cost more than is necessary they not only injure the public, but in the long run they also injure themselves. The ablest employers and labor-leaders are quick to denounce all such policies.

Industrial conflicts and the public. In their controversies with one another both laborers and employers often break the law. The workers at times have not hesitated to use violence and terror to win an industrial struggle; and the employers, with equal disregard of right, have occasionally hired armed guards and bribed public officials to obtain a victory over employees. Senator Kenyon, chairman of the Senate committee that investigated the coal strike of 1922, said:

> There have been violations of law on both sides of this controversy. There has been arrogance upon both sides, seeming to indicate that, in the opinion of some of the leaders, the question was entirely one between the operators and the workers. The whole story of the contest is one of disregard for and breaking of law; of denials of constitutional rights; of a spirit of suspicion, hate, and retaliation on both sides.



THE COST OF STRIKES

This diagram shows the cost of industrial controversies to the American people as estimated by the American Bond and Mortgage Company. Mention ways in which strikes and lockouts bring losses to the public. (Courtesy of Ralph F. Couch, Washington, D.C.)

Industrial conflicts cost both capitalists and laborers hundreds of millions of dollars annually, but they cost the public even more. A struggle between milkmen and their employers endangers the life of every baby in the community; a lockout by the coal operators may put out the fires in every home and factory in the land; a strike of the railway employees ties up transportation in the entire country. The body chiefly affected by industrial warfare is, in short, society. Too often its laws are broken, its interests ignored, and its needs disregarded by the combatants. For such

reasons the public should be the final judge in all industrial disputes; as an old Roman said two thousand years ago, "The safety of the public is the highest law."

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Explain four causes of industrial warfare. Which seems the most important?

2. Tell how a labor union helps its members during a strike.

3. Define strike; closed shop; open shop; blacklist; boycott; lockout; injunction. Do you consider all these objectionable? Explain.

4. Why is the attitude of the public of importance to strikers or employers in time of strike? Name methods which each group uses in order to win public approval. How is public opinion shown during an industrial struggle?

5. Do policemen, firemen, or soldiers ever have the right to strike? Give reasons.

6. Describe three ways in which the community is affected by industrial warfare. Why should the public be the final judge in all industrial controversies?

SECTION III. REMEDIES FOR INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Friendly conference. When William Jennings Bryan was Secretary of State, trouble arose at one time over the rights of Japanese immigrants in several of the Western states. Japan protested vigorously at what she regarded as the violation of a treaty, and a number of conferences took place between Mr. Bryan and the Japanese ambassador. Finally, after a long meeting during which the suggestions of Japan were rejected one by one, the Japanese representative rose and asked coldly, "And is that the last word?" With a winning smile and an outstretched hand Mr. Bryan replied, "There is no last word between friends."

Where the spirit of friendliness prevails, solutions for

controversies are always found. This is true of international disputes; it is equally true of industrial difficulties. On countless occasions representatives of capital and labor settle their troubles in a friendly way by gathering around a table, talking over differences, and coming to an agreement.

Mediation and conciliation. When laborers and employers are unable to solve a controversy by themselves, their

TEAMWORK IN HOUSE BUILDING

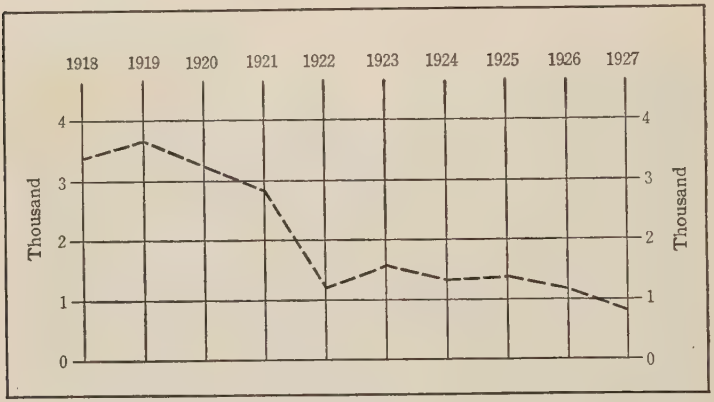
The contractors who are putting up these buildings have several houses under construction with the different stages of the work going on at the same time. In this way they provide against unemployment by keeping their crews busy all the time.

representatives are often brought together by a mediator, who tries to promote a peaceful settlement. Sometimes he is able to suggest a solution satisfactory to the contestants; at other times he persuades both employers and employees to grant concessions; occasionally he merely presides and helps to iron out disagreements as they arise.

Nearly all the states now have boards, or commissions, of mediation and conciliation, who offer their services when industrial trouble occurs and when the parties to a dispute seem unable to come to an agreement. The national

Department of Labor also has a number of trained mediators who have succeeded in settling controversies submitted to them.

Arbitration. When employers and employees are not able to settle their differences by their own action, they occasionally agree to submit the controversy to a judge, or arbiter, and to accept his decision. Unfortunately, when



PROGRESS IN INDUSTRIAL PEACE

The reduction in the number of strikes and lockouts shown in this chart means a great saving to employees, to employers, and to the public. Can a committee of volunteers make a similar drawing to show the number of industrial controversies in your community during recent years? (Courtesy of Ralph F. Couch, Washington, D. C.)

it seems to their advantage to do so, both parties sometimes break the agreements they make with each other. Nothing is so harmful to a peaceful solution of industrial troubles or more destructive to the organization concerned; for, as President Wilson once said, "No organization can long endure that sets up its own strength as being superior to its plighted faith or its duty to society at large."

A number of states have established voluntary arbitration boards to deal with disputes submitted to them. During two and a half years the Bureau of Mediation of

Pennsylvania peaceably settled more than three hundred strikes. Compulsory arbitration of labor troubles by government officials has existed for years in New Zealand, Australia, and Denmark, but authorities disagree on the success of the plan. Similar disagreement exists concerning the Kansas Court of Industrial Relations, which was established in 1920 to decide all disputes arising in industries essential to the public welfare.

Compulsory investigation. Many people believe in compulsory investigation as a means of settling industrial difficulties when the contestants themselves are unable to come to an agreement. This plan, as established in Canada, forbids strikes and lockouts in mines and public utilities without a previous notice of thirty days by the employers or employees. During the interval a board composed of one man appointed by the employers, one by the workers, and one by the government, is required to investigate the dispute and, in case a settlement cannot be arranged, to publish their findings and recommendations. Then, but not till then, may a strike or lockout take place. In most instances, fortunately, public opinion forces the acceptance of the recommendations of the board and a struggle is prevented.

Colorado has recently adopted a plan for settling industrial disputes much like that of Canada. Congress also has established a Federal Board of Mediation, which may intervene in any railway labor dispute in order to bring about a settlement of the controversy. If the Board fails and a strike seems probable, the president is authorized to appoint an emergency board to investigate the entire trouble and publish the facts. While the investigation is in progress and for the next thirty days no change affecting the controversy can be made by either the employers or the employees without the others' consent. The plan is still too new to justify a conclusion as to its merits or defects.

Socialism. Few solutions for industrial warfare are more interesting than that proposed by the socialists. Although socialists disagree among themselves as to what socialism is, most of them accept the main ideas of Karl Marx, the founder of scientific socialism.

Marx believed that the workers — and by "workers" he meant people who toil with their brains as well as people who toil with their hands, musicians as well as mechanics, artists as well as bricklayers — should receive all the profits of industry. Under his plan factories, mines, railroads, and other means of production and distribution would be owned by society and be operated for its benefit. Marx did not advocate equal wages or an equal division of wealth, nor did he object to the private ownership of property if used only for private purposes. His idea was to end the struggle between laborers and capitalists by doing away with the division between the capitalist class and the laboring class. He proposed to make all laborers capitalists and all capitalists laborers. Instead of having capital owned by part of the people for the benefit of part of the people, he would have it owned by all the people for all the people.

Many people object seriously to socialism. They declare that wherever common ownership has been tried it has proved a failure. They maintain that common ownership failed in Jamestown when tried by the gentlemen who founded Virginia and that it failed in Plymouth when attempted by the Pilgrims. Socialists deny that such experiments represent their ideas; but opponents of socialism, while admitting that the communities named were not carried on according to Marx's theories and cannot therefore be regarded as positive proof that his ideas are wrong, insist that they resemble his plan in underestimating the motive which in the past has been the chief spur to human effort — the desire for private personal gain. With this motive gone — and socialism, its enemies declare,

would practically destroy opportunities for private profit — men would not put forth the energy and skill which have brought about human progress in the past. In addition, they maintain that the extension of government control necessary under socialism would prove wasteful and would result in a loss of individual enterprise and freedom.

Teamwork in industry. The most encouraging tendency in recent years among both employers and employees is a

REST ROOM FOR WORKERS

This cheerful room, with its easy chairs, reading material, and piano, furnishes these girls with needed rest and relaxation. Many firms take an interest in the comfort and well-being of their employees.

growing recognition of the fact that only as labor and capital pull together can the best interests of both be served; that teamwork is as essential for success in industry as in athletics. In some industries this feeling has resulted in trade agreements between workers and employers; in arrangements by which the employers share profits, and even capital, with the workers; in systems of control in which the employees choose representatives as members of managing boards.

The trade agreement, which is usually drawn up at a

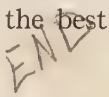
conference, is a contract between the employees and the employers. As a rule it lays down working conditions acceptable to both parties, provides a method for settling disputes peaceably, and deals with such questions as wages, hours, and holidays. The Cleveland agreement between the Ladies' Garment Workers' Union and the Manufacturers' Association, for example, forbids strikes and lockouts, establishes a court to adjust controversies, sets wages and hours, and protects workers against unemployment by providing pay for at least forty-one weeks out of the year.

Systems in which employee representation exists usually give the workers a voice in determining working conditions, in settling disputes, and in fixing wages, hours, and shop rules. Such plans also include at times provisions for insurance, profit-sharing, and welfare work. For example, the Filene Coöperative Association of Boston is an organization of employees which "has representation on the Company's Board of Directors, has authority to initiate or amend all rules governing working conditions, and through an elected Arbitration Board on which the Management is not represented has power to govern discharges, transfers of employees, rates of wages, or any other condition of employment that may be in dispute." The association also provides its members with banking facilities, insurance at low rates, educational courses, medical attention, and opportunities for music, dramatics, athletics, entertainments, and social gatherings. The firm, in return, secures loyal and efficient service.

Summary. The separation of labor from capital, brought about by the Industrial Revolution, is the chief obstacle to coöperation in industry. More direct causes of industrial trouble are disputes over wages, hours, working conditions, and control of production. The inability of the individual laborer to bargain successfully with his employer led to the development of labor organizations, the largest of which

is the American Federation of Labor. The advantages of union caused capitalists also to combine separate industries into great corporations and led employers to form employers' associations. The chief weapons of labor in industrial conflicts are the closed shop, the boycott, and the strike. The most important weapons of capital are the lockout, the blacklist, and the injunction.

The public, which suffers most from industrial strife, has helped to promote friendly settlements of labor disputes by establishing boards of mediation, conciliation, and arbitration. Socialists would end industrial difficulties by having society own the means of production and distribution, but most people do not believe that this plan would succeed. Probably the most hopeful sign of peace in industry today is the increasing tendency of employers and employees to coöperate in the division of profits, the settlement of disputes, and the managing of factories and mills. Certainly, only by working together will the best interests of each be assured.



QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Would it be wise to have laws forbidding strikes? lockouts? Give reasons. Should the public ever interfere in a strike? What is meant by the "public"?

2. Explain the main difference between mediation and arbitration. Tell about an incident in the history of the United States when one of these methods was used to settle a difficulty with another country.

3. Name two advantages and two disadvantages of compulsory arbitration of industrial difficulties. How may the compulsory investigation of an industrial dispute bring about a settlement? Do you see any objections to compulsory investigation?

4. Which of the solutions of the problem of capital and labor mentioned in the text do you think is the best? Why?

5. How is the quotation at the head of this chapter related to the problem of capital and labor?

THINGS TO DO

1. After investigation tell about a profit-sharing plan in operation in some industry in your community. Interview the employer and several of the employees and report the opinion of the plan held by each of them.

2. Bring a "union label" to class and be able to tell what it means and why it is used.

3. Make a scrapbook of newspaper clippings and pictures dealing with industrial disputes. Following the plan of this chapter, arrange your material in three sections.

4. Select teams of two members each to debate this question: "*Resolved*, that the management and control of an industry should be divided equally between the employees and the owners."

5. Invite representatives of labor unions and employers' associations in your community to talk to the class about the aims and methods of their organizations.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "The Great Trade Unions of the Middle Ages," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, IV, 1459–1460.
2. "Labor Organizations," *ibid.*, V, 1947.
3. "Working Together," *Readings in Community Life*, Part IV, section 6.
4. "The Man with the Hoe," E. Markham, *America's Message*, 153–154.
5. "An Eight-Hour Day for Railroad Men," W. Wilson, *In Our Times*. 323–325.
6. * "Who Pays for Strikes?" Anonymous, *ibid.*, 326–328.
7. "Where Workmen are Capitalists," W. O. Saunders, *ibid.*, 328–333.
8. * "A Capitalist's Industrial Creed," J. D. Rockefeller, Jr., *ibid.*, 335–337.
9. "The Department of Labor," *The American Government*, 273–284.

II. Home Readings

1. *Captains of Industry*, by James Parton. Houghton.
2. *Strife*, by John Galsworthy. Scribner.
3. *The Masters of Capital*, by John Moody. Yale.
4. *A Short History of the American Labor Movement*, by Mary Beard. Doran.
5. *Out of Work*, by Frances A. Kellor. Putnam.

6. *The Workers at War*, by Frank J. Warne. Century.
7. *Felix Holt, the Radical*, by George Eliot. Oxford.
8. *Songs of the Workaday World*, by Berton Braley. Doran.
9. *The Prince and the Pauper*, by Mark Twain. Harper.
10. *Who was her Keeper?* by Mary A. Bacon. Grosset.
11. * *The Cry of the Children*, by Elizabeth Barrett Browning. Houghton.
12. * *Hard Times*, by Charles Dickens. Dutton.
13. *The Weavers*, by Gerhardt Hauptmann. Huebsch.
14. *Beyond the Desert*, by Alfred Noyes. Stokes.
15. *Men and Steel*, by Mary H. Vorse. Boni.
16. *A Certain Rich Man*, by William A. White. Grosset.
17. *Mountain*, by Clement Wood. Dutton.

PART FIVE. OCCUPATIONS

CHAPTER XXV

CHOOSING ONE'S WORK

Let me but do my work from day to day,
In field or forest, at the desk or loom,
In roaring market place or tranquil room;
Let me but find it in my heart to say,
When vagrant wishes beckon me astray,
"This is my work; my blessing, not my doom;
Of all who live, I am the one by whom
This work can best be done in the right way."

HENRY VAN DYKE

SECTION I. THE DEBT WE OWE

Debtors. We are all in debt. To persons both seen and unseen we owe much that makes life pleasant and comfortable. From the day of our birth until the day of our death our wants are satisfied in large part through the labors of others.

Examples of our indebtedness appear everywhere and at all times. As little children our meals are prepared, our clothes provided, our toys mended, and our homes furnished by those about us, usually by father and mother. As we grow older we come in touch with firemen and policemen who guard us from danger, with teachers who save us from ignorance, with milkmen and grocers who supply us with food. With wider knowledge we become aware of unseen workers who till fields and harvest crops that our hunger may be satisfied, who toil in mills and factories that our bodies may be clothed and our homes furnished, who labor on motor trucks, railroad trains, and ocean liners that our wants may be gratified. It is impossible to name all the people to whom we are indebted for our comfort.

Indebtedness to distant workers. Our debts are not limited to persons in our own homes nor to those who live in our own vicinity or our own country. In order that we may have sugar on our tables, dark-skinned workers toil on plantations in Cuba and Hawaii; that we may enjoy silk hose and silk neckties, spinners and weavers labor in

"WE BUILT IT OURSELVES!"

Wanting an automobile and having no money with which to buy one, these boys secured discarded parts from worn-out cars and by industry and ingenuity built this machine themselves. Much of the world's work requires mechanical ability such as they have shown.

distant China and Japan; that we may be supplied with galoshes, slickers, and automobile tires, African tribesmen gather and refine the sap of the rubber tree while porters and sailors and railroad men transport it thousands of miles to the factories of our own country.

Obligations to the past. Nor is what we owe restricted to people now living. We are also heavily in debt to generations past and gone. Our buildings, roads and streets, books, comforts and conveniences, were in most instances

built or planned or written or invented by men and women of the past. All around us we see and share the fruit of their toil. We are the heirs of their industry.

Paying our debt. With few exceptions our wants, then, are satisfied by the labors of those about us, of workers in distant lands, and of generations no longer living. When we use the products of their labor we place ourselves under obligations to them; we become their debtors.

How can we meet our obligations? How can we pay our debts? The answer is plain. We can find and do our share of the world's work — at home, at school, in the community, and in the nation.

Each of us, as someone has said, is made for work. Our muscles, hands, feet, and minds are all intended for service. Anyone not engaged in some useful undertaking in school or out is like a valuable machine lying idle and useless in the field; he is of no worth to himself and of no benefit to others. Only as we engage in service do we use our abilities as the Creator intended.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. List all the things you have used or enjoyed during the last three hours. Put a cross (×) before those which required work to produce.

2. Name four services you have received today from persons you know; name four ways you have been served by workers whom you have never seen.

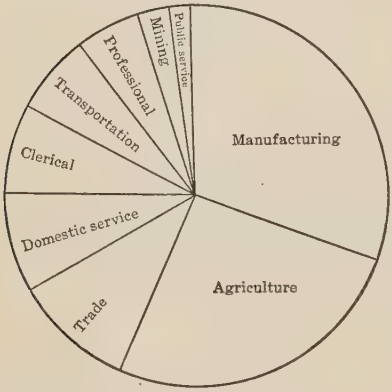
3. Give three examples of benefits you have inherited from the labors of men or women of the past. To whom are we more indebted, the people of the present or the people of the past? Give facts supporting your view.

4. List your ten chief wants. Put a cross (×) before those you gratify with no help from anyone else.

5. Why do people work? After writing your answer in a short paragraph, review Section I of Chapter XIX (pp. 389–395).

Section II. The Work we Do

Work for everyone. Everywhere around us we see people working. They work in the air, on the earth, under the sea. They are engaged in clearing forests, cultivating land, opening mines, transporting goods, carrying messages, keeping accounts, writing books, carving statues, painting pictures. East and West, North and South, up and down, indoors and outdoors, everywhere, people are working.



DISTRIBUTION OF AMERICAN WORKERS

Kinds of work. The extent and the variety of human labor are shown clearly in the last report of the Director of the Census. According to the report, the number of persons ten years of age and over gainfully employed in the United States in 1920 was 41,614,248, or 39.4 per cent of the total population. The workers were engaged in 531 occupations classified by the Bureau of the Census in the nine large groups as shown in the accompanying circle and in the table on page 541.

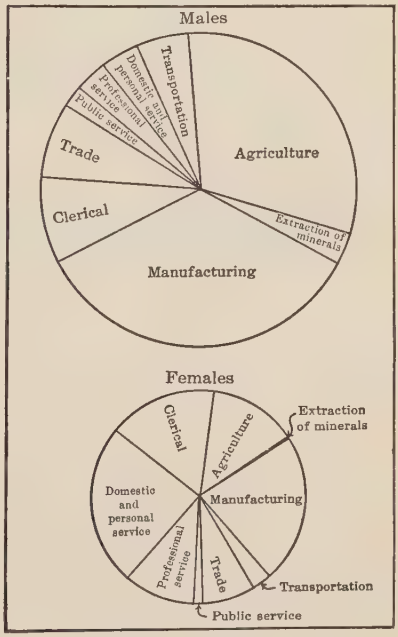
Distribution of workers. Of the total number of persons in the United States engaged in gainful occupations 79 per cent are men and 21 per cent are women. The two circles given on page 541 show, respectively, the number of men and women employed in each occupational group.

The chief differences in the employment of men and women, as a comparison of the two circles will show, are in agricultural, mining, clerical, professional, and domestic lines. In domestic occupations two thirds of the workers are women; in clerical and professional lines men and

Occupations	Number of Persons Engaged	Per Cent Distribution
Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry	10,953,158	26.3
Extraction of minerals	1,090,223	2.6
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	12,818,524	30.8
Transportation	3,063,582	7.4
Trade	4,242,979	10.2
Public service (not elsewhere classified)	770,460	1.9
Professional service	2,143,889	5.2
Domestic and personal service	3,404,892	8.2
Clerical occupations	3,126,541	7.4
All occupations	41,614,248	100.0

women are about equal in number, but the proportion of women so employed as compared with the total number of women workers is much larger than in the case of the men. In all other occupations more than 60 per cent of the workers are men.

Opportunity for all. Almost every occupation is open to every person, provided he possesses the necessary ability and has had suitable preparation to do the work involved. Women, for example, are reported as engaged in all but 35 of the 531 occupations listed by the Bureau of the Census; the few occupations they have not



DISTRIBUTION BY SEX

The divisions of the circle show the percentages of persons employed.

yet entered include those of teamsters, ditchers, masons, plumbers, boiler makers, roofers, railway brakemen, locomotive engineers, railway mail clerks, and firemen. Men are employed in practically all occupations, serving even as nursemaids, dressmakers, chambermaids, milliners, and seamstresses. No matter what one's inclinations may be, some field of usefulness may be found which is open to him.

BOY CHEFS

Jobs may come and jobs may go, but the work of preparing food remains forever. These boys in a Buffalo high school organized this cooking class themselves, and according to the instructor they do as well as the girls, if not better. Some of the best cooks in the world are men.

The world is unfinished and its tasks are never at an end. Fields must be plowed; harvests must be gathered; live stock must be cared for; clothing, household goods, and machinery must be manufactured; minerals must be brought out of the earth; goods must be transported; buildings, bridges, and roads must be constructed; music, knowledge, science, and art must be developed; government and schools and churches must be conducted. The work which needs to be done requires the services of all.

We are made for it; it is made for us. Through work we grow in power and capacity; in congenial work we find satisfaction and happiness.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name ten occupations that play a part in satisfying your wants; three occupations that contribute in no way to your desires.

2. What five occupations have played the most important part in making your school what it is?

3. Give examples showing the truth of this statement: "We dwell in an unfinished world."

4. Why have women not entered into the occupations named on page 542? In your opinion, why have men undertaken the lines of work named in the first sentence in the first paragraph on page 542?

5. How did the Industrial Revolution affect the number and character of occupations? If you cannot answer the preceding question, re-read Section III of Chapter XIX.

SECTION III. THE CHOICE TO MAKE

Misfits. Look where one may, he will usually discover persons who dislike their work. Sometimes their dissatisfaction is caused by ill health; sometimes it results from wrong notions about life and labor; sometimes it is caused by lack of preparation and training; sometimes it comes from employment ill-suited to the worker's interests and capacities.

In instances like the last, the worker is a misfit, — a square peg in a round hole or a round peg in a square hole. He does not fit his job; his job does not fit him. He is a business man when he should have been a lawyer; or a lawyer when he should have been a physician; or a physician when he should have been a farmer; or a farmer when he should have been a mechanic; or a mechanic when he should have been an accountant or a bookkeeper. In such

instances a person is usually unhappy and inefficient in his work, for satisfaction is necessary to the best work.

A thoroughgoing investigation of the world of work, its needs and its opportunities, together with a painstaking examination of your own interests and capacities, is the best way to avoid occupations in which you, too, may prove a misfit. Such study will help you to choose work for which you are suited, in which you can render good service, and through which you will find happiness and success.

Likes and dislikes. No one can safely choose an occupation for someone else. Likes, interests, and capacities differ. According to an old maxim, "What's one man's poison is another's meat"; according to another old saying, "There is no accounting for tastes." Both proverbs are true: what attracts one individual often repels another.

It is a happy fact that we differ in our likes and dislikes, especially when it comes to work. Otherwise we should all want to be lawyers, or farmers, or mechanics, or physicians, or teachers, or nurses, or plumbers. If such were the case, most lines of work would either remain undone or would be carried on by people who would find their tasks unattractive and hateful. Varied as we are in our interests and living in a world in which hundreds of different kinds of work are required, few of us need to engage in distasteful employment if we are willing to take the time and make the effort to learn our capacities, to discover the work for which we are fitted, and to prepare ourselves adequately for it.

Know yourself. The first step in choosing an occupation is to find out the kind of person you yourself are. What do you like to do? What are your main interests? What are your strong points? What are your weaknesses? What can you do best?

Question yourself frankly and answer your questions honestly. Also ask the opinions of those who know you best — the members of your family, your teachers and friends.

Remember that the heart of all wisdom, according to the Greeks, that marvelous people of ancient times, is, "Know thyself!"

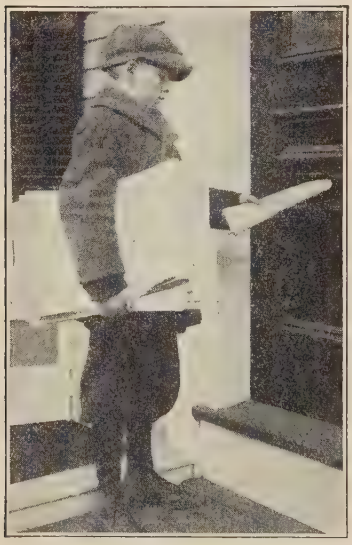
Investigate occupations. The second step in choosing a life's work is to investigate the opportunities that are available. Look about you. Observe people at work. Study their activities.

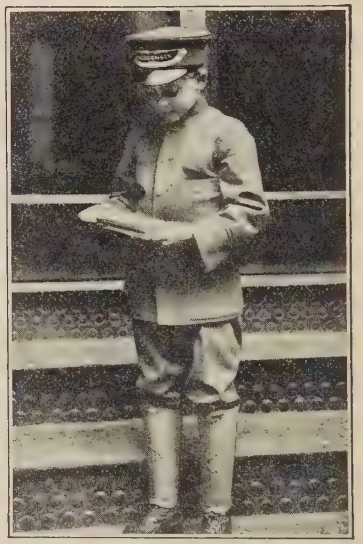
Benjamin Franklin's father, a tallow chandler by occupation, well understood the value of observation. Noticing that Benjamin greatly disliked the making of candles and fearing that the boy might run away to sea, as his older brother had done, the father tried to find a more agreeable occupation for his son. Accordingly, says Franklin in his *Autobiography*: "He sometimes took me to walk with him to see joiners, bricklayers, turners, braziers, etc., at their work, that he might observe my inclination, and endeavor to fix it on some trade or other on land."

But mere observation, valuable as it is, is not enough to enable one to choose a life's work today. When Franklin was a boy occupations were few in number, and, as someone has said, "it was easy to step into shops to see the men at work or indeed to view them from the street at benches and counters." But at the present time occupations run into the hundreds, industries are complex, and opportunities for advancement are often not apparent to the passer-by. Hence chance inspection is frequently misleading.

You must, therefore, give thoroughgoing study to the world of work if you would select an occupation wisely. You need to understand the nature of an industry or profession, the part it plays in the community, the relation it bears to other occupations, the preparation it requires, the personal qualities it demands, and the opportunities it offers. If possible, try out an occupation to which you feel attracted and find by actually doing the work whether or not it will keep its attraction for you.

Avoid blind-alley jobs. In selecting your life's work choose an occupation that has a future. Give little thought to the wages or salary you will receive at first. What you are paid at the outset is of no consequence compared with what you will receive five or ten years later, if you succeed. Look ahead and plan for a bigger job in the future.





ARE THESE BLIND-ALLEY JOBS?

Delivering newspapers and carrying messages are good ways for boys to earn money while going to school. Both jobs require dependableness and self-reliance, but they provide little training for higher positions.

Avoid blind-alley jobs. A blind alley is one which goes halfway through a block and then stops. It is no thoroughfare; to get to any place you must turn around and go out the way you entered. Blind-alley jobs, likewise, are those that have no future; they lead nowhere; at the end of ten years they are little better than at the beginning.

Blind-alley jobs are for the most part the only positions open to the untrained boy or girl. Occasionally such

employment may pay high wages for a while, but the wages seldom remain high. In ordinary times a laborer in a blind-alley job finds that his earnings increase slowly until he is about twenty or twenty-five years old; up to thirty or thirty-five they are at their highest point; after thirty-five they generally decline. Positions requiring education, on the other hand, usually reach their highest point when workers are between the ages of forty and sixty.

Choose an occupation. Don't let yourself drift into a line of work. After you know your own interests and after you study the various kinds of employment to which you feel drawn, make a choice. Avoid blind-alley jobs by selecting an occupation with your eyes open and by fitting yourself for it.

Prepare for your work. The main doorway to success in business, industry, and the professions is the school. Nowadays practically all occupations with futures have a large body of information and training connected with them, which one must master in order to succeed. After selecting your work, prepare to do it.

As pointed out above, untrained workers usually drift into blind-alley occupations. Not long ago the newspapers told about a young man of twenty, who, realizing that he was in such employment, had the courage to quit his job and go back to school. A brave thing to do; but how much better had he stayed in school and secured his training earlier in life.

First of all, then, secure as much education as you can afford. If you find it necessary to drop out of school and go to work, continue your study; enroll in a night school or take correspondence courses from a reputable institution; read books that are worth while; attend good lectures. Study your occupation and its opportunities; prepare yourself for a higher position.

Summary. With few exceptions our wants are satisfied only by the products of labor. For food, clothing, shelter, safety, education, and entertainment we are in the main indebted

to others. In return each of us has a share in the world's work; only by doing it can we pay our debt to society.

Occupations in the world of work were never so numerous nor so varied as at the present time. Among so many types of work every individual can find a means of livelihood suited to his interests and capacities. To avoid being a misfit, find, first of all, your own likes and dislikes; second, investigate the different occupations that attract you; third, choose the activity for which you seem best adapted; finally, prepare yourself to do your chosen work and to do it well. By such action you will win success and be of real service to others.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name the tastes and capacities which in your opinion should characterize a person suited to enter one of the following occupations: stenographer, plumber, teacher, journalist, physician, merchant, bookkeeper.

2. Mention occupations in which you think you would be a misfit. Give reasons.

3. Name several blind-alley jobs. What is the chief difference between the work connected with a blind-alley job and a position with a future?

4. Are you planning to go to college? If so, name the college or university you would like to attend, giving your reasons. Which is better — to go to college immediately after graduating from high school or to work a year first? Why?

5. Is it more difficult to choose an occupation now than in Franklin's days? Is preparation more important now than in his time? Give reasons for your answers.

THINGS TO DO

1. Choose a committee to make drawings or diagrams showing the distribution of occupations in your community, first, among men, second, among women. Follow the plan given on page 541 or, if you prefer, some other plan.

2. Name the three occupations which you think you would like best. Indicate your first, second, and third choice by the figures one, two, and three, respectively.

3. Make a list of the main debts you owe to the labors of others. Copy the following chart in your notebook, filling in the blanks:

MY MAIN OBLIGATIONS TO THE LABORS OF OTHERS

TO PERSONS I KNOW	TO PEOPLE I DO NOT KNOW	TO WORKERS OF THE PAST
1. ----------	1. ----------	1. ----------
2. ----------	2. ----------	2. ----------
3. ----------	3. ----------	3. ----------
4. ----------	4. ----------	4. ----------
5. ----------	5. ----------	5. ----------

4. List all occupations which, so far as you know, are carried on in your neighborhood or community, arranging them under the nine classifications given on page 541. Place a cross (×) before the three occupations which have the largest number of workers.

5. List six important points to keep in mind in choosing an occupation.

6. Analyze yourself, listing your chief characteristics in accordance with the following form:

MYSELF

LIKES	DISLIKES	STRONG POINTS	WEAK POINTS

7. Give copies of the preceding form to your father, mother, older brother, and older sister, asking each of them to fill the columns

without consulting anyone else. Tabulate the items and compare with your own analysis. From the result, draw whatever conclusions you can concerning your occupational preferences as shown by your answer to No. 2. Suggest methods by which you can overcome the weaknesses listed in the last column in No. 6.

8. Begin to collect material for a Life's Work Book to be completed by the end of the course. The book should contain a description and analysis of yourself and of your chosen occupation. The volume will be of value both as an aid to self-improvement and as a means for collecting information, forming plans, and reaching conclusions concerning the line of work which attracts you most and in which you seem most likely to succeed. Insert drawings, illustrations, clippings, and advertisements from time to time when you think such inclusions will be of value. Prepare your book neatly. Use pen and ink; watch your spelling; be careful about your English; make the book a matter of pride. Use the following outline as a guide:

I. Cover (make your own design)
II. Title-page
III. Dedication
IV. Foreword (tell what you tried to do and how you did it)
V. Table of contents
VI. List of illustrations and drawings
VII. Treatment of occupation
  A. Reasons for selecting occupation
    1. Personal traits and interests, likes and dislikes
    2. Other occupations of interest
    3. Deciding factors in making choice
  B. Description of occupation
    1. Service to the community
    2. History
    3. Number of persons employed
    4. Branches or divisions
    5. Successful leaders
  C. Description of work during a typical day (secured from interviews)
  D. Advantages and disadvantages
  E. Preparation
    1. Education
    2. Experience

F. Qualities necessary for success
1. Physical
2. Mental
3. Social
4. Moral

Secure information from interviews and from references in the book list

G. Personal analysis (see Nos. 6 and 7, pp. 549–550)
1. Physical
2. Mental
3. Social
4. Moral

Indicate qualities you now have and those you need to develop

H. Bibliography. (In the case of each book or article consulted, give name of the author in full, the complete title, the place and date of publication, and remarks on the content and usefulness of the material. Include also the names and addresses of all persons interviewed.)

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "Choosing a Career," J. M. Brewer, *In Our Times*, 506–509.
2. "Vocational Guidance," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 432–439.
3. "Work: A Song of Triumph," A. Morgan, *The Worker and His Work*, 37–38.
4. "Choosing One's Work," *Readings in Community Life*, Part V, section 1.
5. "Fit for Service," *Fiber and Finish*, 151–154.
6. * "What Shall I Do for a Living?" *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, IX, 3653–3657.

II. Home Readings

1. *What Girls can Do*, by Ruth Wanger. Holt.
2. *Your Biggest Job*, by H. L. Smith. Appleton.
3. * *What are you going to Be?* by Hallam Hawksworth. Century.
4. *Choosing a Career*, by Orison S. Marden. Bobbs.
5. *What shall I Do?* by J. S. Stoddard. Hindes.
6. *Choosing a Vocation*, by Frank Parsons. Houghton.
7. *Choosing the Right Career*, by E. D. Toland. Appleton.
8. *Heroes of Everyday Life*, by Fanny E. Coe. Ginn.
9. *The Young Man and the World*, by Albert J. Beveridge. Appleton.
10. *Preparing for the World's Work*, by Isaac Doughton. Scribner.
11. *Out-Door Work*, by Mary L. Miller. Doubleday.
12. *The Girl who earns her own Living*, by Anna S. Richardson. Rickey.

13. * *Opportunities of Today for Boys and Girls,* by Bennett B. Jackson, Norma H. Deming, and Katherine I. Bemis. Century.
14. *Fields of Work for Women,* by Miriam S. Leuck. Appleton.
15. *The Girl and the Job,* by Helen C. Hoerle and Florence H. Saltzberg. Holt.
16. * *What can a Young Man Do?* by Frank W. Rollins. Little.
17. * *Choosing your Life Work,* by William Rosengarten. McGraw-Hill.
18. * *What shall I Be?* edited by Clayton H. Ernst. Appleton.
19. *Careers for Women,* by Catherine Filene. Houghton.
20. *The Book of Opportunity,* by Rutherford H. Platt, Jr., and Rebecca T. Farnham. Putnam.

CHAPTER XXVI

GAINING A LIVING FROM THE EARTH

And he gave it for his opinion, that whoever could make two ears of corn, or two blades of grass, to grow upon a spot of ground where only one grew before, would deserve better of mankind, and do more essential service to his country, than the whole race of politicians put together. — JONATHAN SWIFT

SECTION I. FARMING

Dependence on the earth. We all depend on the earth for a living. From it we secure the foods we eat, the fabrics we wear, and the materials of which our dishes, books, furniture, tools, and machines are made. Everything we use is directly or indirectly a gift of nature.

But, as we have seen, labor is necessary to secure the fruits of the earth, for land must be cultivated, fish must be caught, minerals must be excavated, and timber must be cut. Of those who wrest a living directly from the earth we depend most of all upon the farmer. We look to him to provide us with food, with material for clothing, and with a large portion of the supplies needed in our mills and factories. His occupation is the basis of all industry. As President Calvin Coolidge said, "Every citizen among us has a personal concern in the welfare of the farmer; the fortunes of all of us will in the end go up or down with him."

Scope of agriculture. Agriculture is a broad term, embracing many kinds of work. It includes fruit-growing, stock-raising, dairying, market gardening, the keeping of bees, the production of flowers, and the raising of poultry. Farmers vary in their activities, therefore, fully as much as do mechanics or factory employees. If you are thinking of agriculture as an occupation, you must accordingly know

something about its different branches in order to choose wisely among them and to prepare adequately for your work. Viewed as a whole, agriculture falls into two main divisions, diversified farming and specialized farming.

Diversified farming. In diversified farming, the most common type of agriculture, three fifths of the farmers in the United States are engaged. In addition to raising grains, such as wheat, oats, rye, and corn, the general farmer keeps cattle, pigs, poultry, and occasionally a few sheep. He also has an orchard containing peach, apple, plum, and cherry trees, he usually raises a few berries and vegetables, and he may even produce small quantities of milk, butter, and honey for the market.

In diversified farming crops are generally raised in rotation. During one year a field may be planted in wheat, a second field in oats, and a third field in clover, timothy, or alfalfa. The following year the first field is sowed in oats, the second in clover, and the third in wheat. The third year the first field is devoted to clover, the second to wheat, and the third to oats. The best type of rotation depends, of course, on the character of the soil, climate, and market.

Rotation of crops is good for the soil. It enables the farmer to profit in one product even if insect pests or market conditions cause him to lose in another. A hail storm may ruin the fruit or the corn-borer may destroy the corn, but if the crop of wheat, oats, or potatoes brings a satisfactory return, the year as a whole will be a success.

Moreover, diversified farming (of which the rotation of crops is one aspect) means a variety of labor, which is in itself a source of satisfaction. Fields need to be plowed, harrowed, planted, cultivated, and harvested; trees must be sprayed and fruit must be picked; live stock require feed and care; hay must be cut, corn must be husked, buildings and machinery must be repaired. So profitable and stimulating did diversified farming prove to one community in the South that the farmers in the vicinity erected

a monument to the boll weevil, the insect which, by ruining the cotton crop, had forced them to turn their efforts to raising a variety of products.

Diversified agriculture requires, however, wider knowledge than is needed in growing a single crop or in raising nothing but fruit, cotton, or cattle. Moreover, it demands a variety of expensive machines and equipment, thus calling

HARVESTING WHEAT

Over a billion bushels of wheat are raised in the United States every year. This huge harvesting machine, drawn by twenty-seven mules and horses, cuts, threshes, and sacks the grain all at one operation.

for more capital than an owner of small acreage ordinarily has; several farmers can overcome this obstacle, however, by uniting in the purchase and use of machinery.

Specialized farming. The present tendency in agriculture is toward diversified farming, but climate, soil, location, or market conditions may make it wise to specialize in one crop. Regions in Minnesota, the Dakotas, California, and Canada are ideal for the growing of wheat; parts of Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, and Illinois seem intended for raising corn; sections of Florida, Michigan, Washington, Colorado,

Louisiana, and California are unsurpassed for fruit. In such areas it would probably be wasteful to engage in diversified agriculture.

Market gardening and flower culture. Similarly, market gardening is usually a profitable undertaking in the neighborhood of great cities. Here land is costly, farms are small,

Ewing Galloway

FUTURE NURSERYMEN

These boys are learning how to transfer plants from a greenhouse to an open garden. The work requires care in handling the roots and in watering the young plants.

and products possessing high value in comparison to their bulk or in comparison to the space required for their production must be raised in order to obtain a fair profit on the investment. In addition, good markets and excellent transportation facilities are at hand.

Under such circumstances the raising of onions, radishes, cabbages, tomatoes, asparagus, berries, melons, and celery generally pays, for fancy prices can be obtained in the city

for fresh vegetables and berries when put up in neat and attractive packages or baskets. Moreover, with care and industry two and even three or four crops of vegetables can be produced on the same plot of ground in a single season. The raising of flowers for the cut-flower trade is another type of agriculture well suited for land near large cities and very profitable to people who prove skillful in the undertaking.

Hothouses, or greenhouses, are essential for success in both flower culture and market gardening, if one is to secure the high prices paid for flowers and vegetables in winter and early spring; and enough capital to build a modern greenhouse equipped with furnace, steam pipes, and sprinkling apparatus is also necessary.

Dairying and poultry raising. Although dairying and the raising of poultry need no longer be limited to farms close to cities, the owners of such land have advantages over farmers living at a distance, for fresh milk and eggs can be furnished to city consumers only when such products can be shipped to market within a few hours. Fortunately the rapid transportation provided by the automobile, trolley, and railroad has greatly widened the area suitable for dairy farms and chicken farms. When land is too remote for communication with the city, dairying may be carried on profitably by turning the milk into butter or cheese, or by disposing of it at creameries or condensed-milk factories. If carefully packed, eggs may be shipped several hundred miles by parcel post directly from the farm to the consumer.

Capital for land, barns, cows, and equipment is needed to engage in dairying. Poultry farming, on the other hand, can be undertaken on a small plot of ground and with an inexpensive outfit, but requires painstaking attention to details.

Live stock. The farmer who specializes in raising cattle, hogs, or sheep must have a large acreage. He also requires a region where natural grass is abundant or where other

foods are plentiful. In early days cattle and sheep were raised, for the most part, on the great plains of the West. Although thousands of animals are still produced on western ranges, the tendency now is to raise most of our live stock on smaller farms in the Mississippi Valley. This is especially true in the case of cattle and hogs, which can be

SPRAYING FRUIT

Attention must be given to fruit trees during the entire season in order to insure a marketable crop. This man is spraying pear trees to prevent blight and to kill injurious insects.

fattened profitably in the great corn belt of the central West. Success in stock-raising requires capital and demands a knowledge of the care and diseases of animals.

Fruit-growing. Climate and soil are the main factors involved in growing fruit. Study is necessary, therefore, in order to select the trees that are suitable for a given location. Pears thrive in soil where apples do poorly; cherries stand frosts that will kill peaches. Care is needed also in

© Underwood & Underwood

ROUNDING UP CATTLE

The cowboy has been so well done in stories that every land knows him from sombrero to spurs. Ranch life attracts men who like the wide open spaces and who have some knowledge of cattle.

spraying the trees and in guarding their roots from insect enemies. Coöperative associations, as shown before, are invaluable in enabling fruit-growers to market their products successfully.

Advantages. Agriculture has many attractive features. First of all, it offers different lines of work from which to choose. If a person goes in for specialized farming, he may be a stockman, dairyman, market gardener, poultryman, or orchardist; if he decides in favor of diversified farming, his activities change from day to day and even from hour to hour. Farm work is not monotonous.

A second attractive element is the independence that attends agriculture. A farmer is his own master, determines his own hours, and decides what crops he will plant, what stock he will raise, what equipment he will use. He owns a bit of the earth.

In the third place, a farmer usually sets a good table and owns a comfortable home, even if he is not able to make a fortune. His occupation is the most healthful that one can adopt, a recent publication of the United States Department of Labor reporting the average age at death among farmers as higher than in any other line of work. He also has other rewards which are hard to find in the city: he lives close to nature; his work is out of doors in the midst of pure air and sunlight; he sees the miracle of rebirth every spring. He feeds and clothes the world, and the time is coming when he will again reap a material reward corresponding to his service.

Disadvantages. Like all occupations, agriculture has its drawbacks. The first is a need for capital. To begin market gardening or the raising of poultry does not require much money, but to own a well-stocked and well-equipped farm means an investment of thousands of dollars.

Farm ownership is by no means impossible, however, to anyone who is ambitious, able, and industrious. A farm hand usually earns from $25 to $75 a month and in addition

receives room, board, and laundry free; his earnings, therefore, often amount to more than he can make in a factory, and he is able to save the most of what he earns. Moreover, a capable farm laborer ordinarily has little trouble in securing a farm to work on "shares," that is, dividing the profits with the owner. Graduates of agricultural colleges have no trouble in securing employment as farm-managers, receiving as a rule from $100 to $200 a month and, in addition, a dwelling place and sometimes their living.

A second disadvantage in farming is loneliness. Much of the labor, especially on a small farm, must be done alone. Automobiles, good roads, and telephones, however, have done a great deal to unite country people, while rural free mail delivery and the radio have brought them into close contact with the outside world.

In the third place, farm labor requires long hours and severe physical effort. But the burden is less than in early days, and tends to become steadily lighter with the use of machinery, electricity, and labor-saving devices. In spite of the hard work on a farm, many women have successfully taken up the lighter phases of agriculture. They have had especially good results in market gardening, bee culture, poultry farming, the raising of flowers, and fruit-growing.

The most discouraging aspect of farming, perhaps, is the uncertainty about the outcome. In spite of careful planting and cultivation, a heavy storm or an untimely frost may destroy the labors of a season. But, as we have seen, diversified farming will greatly reduce the effect of such disasters. All in all, the advantages of agriculture outweigh the disadvantages to persons who are qualified and prepared for its activities.

Qualifications for success. The successful farmer appreciates the out-of-doors. He likes physical labor, is able to do things with his hands, is strong of body and cheerful in outlook. He is fond of animals and enjoys taking care of them. He also has a mechanical turn of mind and likes to

work with machinery. He is something of a carpenter, and is able to keep his implements and buildings in good repair. He can manage unexpected situations as they arise. He is interested in farm problems and is wide awake to improved farming methods. He is a student of agriculture.

Training and education. Not many years ago it was thought that anyone could run a farm successfully, but that is not the case today. Now, in order to get from the soil what the modern world considers a fair return for his labor and capital, the farmer must be an expert with a high degree of skill and intelligence. To succeed in his occupation, he must know the laws that govern the production of plants and animals. Since he works constantly with the materials and forces that make up the natural sciences, he should know something about chemistry, physics, botany, animal and plant physiology, zoölogy, geology, and entomology. He must have a knowledge of ordinary business methods. He should also understand the relation of farming to the railroads, the tariff, and market conditions.

If you plan to become a farmer, get a good education. In addition to the courses in agriculture and science offered in your school, study agriculture in college or university. If this proves impossible, attend the short courses given during the winter in most state universities. Subscribe to several farm journals and read them regularly. Try yourself out by getting a job on a farm during the summer.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name the chief types of agriculture in your part of the country. Which type seems to be followed by the largest number of farmers? Give reasons.

2. Explain diversified farming; specialized farming. What is meant by rotation of crops? How does rotation of crops affect the soil? Why? Find the method of rotation used on most farms in your vicinity.

3. Name five articles for which you are indebted to the farmer. In what ways does your school depend upon him?

4. In your opinion what is the chief attraction in farming? the chief disadvantage?

5. What studies and opportunities does your school offer that are helpful to pupils wishing to prepare for agriculture?

6. *Report for a volunteer:* Hunting plants in other lands. See "Explorers who Hunt Plants," in *The Literary Digest*, Vol. LXXIX, 54–56; also "Adventures of a Plant-Hunter in China," *ibid.*, Vol. LXXXIII, 52–54.

Section II. Lumbering and Forestry

The forests. Of all nature's gifts the forests are the most valuable. They regulate the flow of rivers, safeguard the soil of valleys, moderate changes in temperature, and lessen the force of winds and storms. They also supply invaluable products for use in construction and transportation.

During recent years, steel, brick, and cement, it is true, have come to serve as the main building materials for skyscrapers, bridges, and large factories. But lumber continues to occupy the main place in houses and small buildings, and is used in large part in all structures for doors, window frames, floors, and furniture. Our supply of resin, tar, turpentine, pitch, and paper also comes almost entirely from trees. In addition, nothing has yet been found to take the place of wooden ties on the railroad or of wooden poles in telegraph and telephone lines. The extent of our dependence on wood is shown in part by the fact that we use for board lumber alone, it is said, seven thousand square miles of forest every year.

Lumbering. For the products of the forest we are indebted to lumbermen and workers in sawmills. Lumbermen are harvesters of trees. Their work includes the planning of the logging camp, the laying out of roads, trails, and sluices, the felling of trees, sawing them into logs, and the hauling

or floating of logs to sawmills, docks, and railroad stations. Workers in sawmills change logs into lumber.

Work of lumbermen. According to a recent report of the national Bureau of the Census, there were in 1920 over two hundred thousand persons in the United States engaged in lumbering, including two hundred and seventy-nine women.

FELLING A LARGE FIR

The wedge-shaped notch which these men are making in the tree determines the direction of its fall. The next step is to make the "felling cut" on the opposite side of the trunk. This is done with the saw.

By far the larger number of workers are loggers, teamsters, raftsmen, choppers, cutters, barkers, and loaders. The character of the task of each group is indicated by its name; each requires strength, endurance, and agility, and demands ability to stand exposure, extremes of heat and cold, and hard physical labor. Lumbering, for the most part, is a hard, rough life, but has its full share of adventure and romance.

Forestry. Until recent times lumbering was carried on in most parts of the country in a careless, wasteful manner.

Trees were felled without safeguarding the young growth; branches were left in heaps with no attention to danger by fire; whole regions were deforested without consideration of the effect on soil erosion, stream flow, or drought, and without provision for the needs of future days. The disastrous floods, ruined farm lands, and rapid increase

LOADING LOGS

The donkey engine seen at the right "snakes up" the logs and loads them on the flat cars. They are then hauled down to the sawmill.

in the price of lumber brought about the conservation movement, as we have seen (p. 425), and also led to the development of forestry.

Forestry, unlike lumbering, is concerned with tomorrow as much as with today; it is interested in planting a tree for every tree cut down. Forestry is the science of managing forests so as to protect the soil, safeguard the streams, and provide for timber production and preservation.

Work of foresters. Foresters are, in a sense, Jacks-of-all-trades. They must be familiar with timber, grazing, and

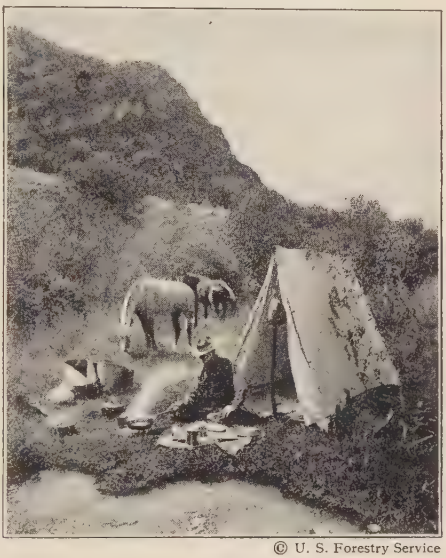
mining laws. They must know trees, the uses of each variety, and the conditions under which each kind thrives best. They must be acquainted with the insects and diseases which threaten forests, and must understand ways of combating such dangers. They must be able to handle the practical details which arise constantly in their work. The varied tasks of a forester are well described in the following passage from a government bulletin:

> The average forester must take long walks and horseback rides. He must often camp out. He must take his part in fighting fires, which means the liberal and energetic use of the ax, the mattock, and the shovel. He must run compass and transit lines and make topographic maps. He must estimate the size and contents of standing trees by the use of calipers and height-measures, and must scale the fallen timber. He must mark, or blaze, the trees to be removed in lumbering, and must see that the operations are carried out in accordance with the approved plans. He must collect tree cones, extract the seeds from these, sow them in the nursery, care for the young seedlings, and later set them out in the forest.

Opportunities in lumbering and forestry. Lumbering offers an outdoor life with a variety of activities, mostly physical in character. A recent government publication lists more than one hundred and fifty different lines of work in logging camps and sawmills, ranging from the jobs of woodchoppers and trail snipers, who usually receive from $3 to $4 a day, to the positions of saw filers, foremen, and superintendents, who generally earn from $200 to $300 a month.

Positions in forestry fall, for the most part, into three classes: guards, rangers, and foresters, the last two groups containing a number of ranks. Few forest guards have regular employment, being hired as a rule only for the summer or autumn to help the rangers protect the forests from fire; ordinarily they receive from $3 to $4 a day. Forest rangers act as assistants to foresters, and may attain such rank themselves. Rangers help to carry out the

plans of the foresters, blazing trees for removal, managing planting activities, laying out trails, building fire lookouts, and patrolling their districts; they earn from $125 to $200 a month. Foresters have full responsibility for the areas under their charge; they generally receive from $200 to $500 a month, depending on their rank and responsibilities.



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THE END OF THE DAY

The forest ranger is his own cook and bottle-washer, but his life is not a continual picnic, as it may seem. Being the sole guardian of his part of the woods, he must keep a sharp lookout for anything which may damage his domain.

Qualifications and training. If you go in for lumbering or forestry, the greater part of your work will be in the open air. You must, accordingly, be able to stand exposure in all kinds of weather. Good eyes, keen ears, a strong heart, sound lungs, and a sturdy body will be of the greatest importance. You should be able to handle tools, especially an ax and a saw.

Most jobs in lumber camps require little schooling beyond the first eight grades. Chainmen, commissary men, cutters, surveyors, and superintendents, however, should be graduates of high schools or technical colleges; employment may be secured through application to a lumber company.

Forest guards can do their work with a common-school education, but rangers and foresters need more thorough preparation. If you wish to become a ranger, you should

have high-school training and, in addition, you should study elementary courses in forestry for at least one year. If you wish to become a forester, you will need a thorough course in a college of forestry, including such studies as geology, botany, mathematics, surveying, chemistry, and mechanical drawing, as well as the more technical subjects of forest management, regulation, valuation, and measurement.

Most openings in forestry are in the Forest Service of the national government, but positions may be obtained also in private companies and, occasionally, in the forest reserves of state, county, or city governments. To become a ranger or a forester in the national service you must be successful in a competitive civil-service examination.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name uses of wood not mentioned in this section. What industries in your community do not require lumber as raw material?

2. Explain the chief differences between lumbering and forestry. Why do both occupations belong in this chapter?

3. Name qualities needed in both lumbering and forestry. What qualifications are required for forestry that are not necessary in lumbering? Why is wider education needed for forestry than for lumbering?

4. What work in lumbering do you suppose was done by the two hundred and seventy-nine women engaged in the industry in 1920?

5. What courses does your school offer that would be helpful as a preparation for lumbering? for forestry?

6. In what sections of the country are lumbering and forestry important occupations today?

SECTION III. MINING

Minerals. On every hand we see the use of minerals — lead, stone, iron, and coal. Minerals enter into our buildings, compose our tools and machinery, heat our homes, and propel our automobiles, ships, and trains. As jewelry,

silverware, and gold plate, minerals adorn our persons and beautify our tables. Were it not for minerals our buildings would tumble to the ground, our means of transportation would be at a standstill, our factories would close their doors. The importance of the most useful mineral, iron, appears, in part, in the following lines:

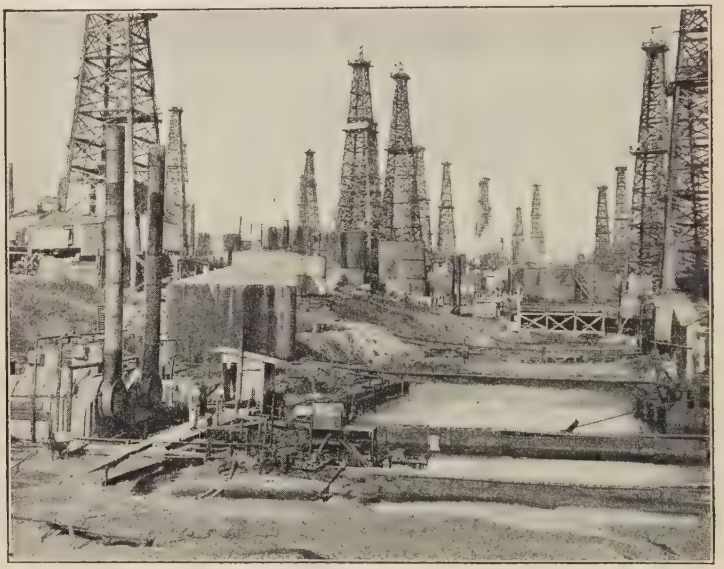
Iron vessels cross the ocean.
Iron engines give them motion;
Iron pipes our gas delivers,
Iron bridges span our rivers;
Iron horses draw our loads,
Iron rails compose our roads;
Iron axes, knives, and chains,
Iron augers, saws, and planes;
Iron hammers, nails, and screws —
Iron everything we use.

Nature's storehouse of minerals lies buried for the most part beneath the surface of the earth. Before such deposits can be used, they must, of course, be brought out of the depths. The work of extracting minerals from the earth is the task of the miner. By making them available he performs a service of the first rank.

Work of the miner. The nature of a miner's work depends upon the kind of minerals he excavates and their nearness to the earth's surface. Clay, stone, and in some instances copper, gold, iron, and coal, are so close to the surface that they may be removed under the open sky. Most of our coal, iron, lead, gold, copper, and silver is so far underground, however, that shafts must be sunk and tunnels opened to gain access to the deposits and remove them for our use. To secure oil and gas, which are sometimes thousands of feet below the surface of the earth, the workers must drive wells and obtain the deposits through pipes by pumping operations or as a result of natural pressure.

Three out of every four miners are engaged in removing minerals from underground mines; the rest are divided

in almost equal numbers between the workers in oil, gas, and salt wells and the persons employed in open iron mines, coal mines, clay pits, stone quarries, and placer gold mines. Of the miners whose tasks are underground, more than three fourths are engaged in the mining of coal. The work



Ewing Galloway

OIL WELLS

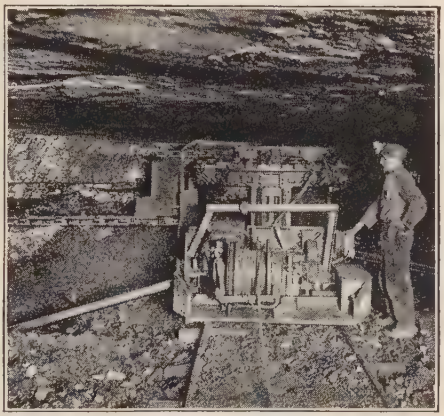
Under each of these derricks there is an oil well which goes into the earth varying distances for petroleum. The round tanks are temporary reservoirs. The pond in the foreground is not a swimming pool as you might think, but a surplus of oil which the reservoirs could not accommodate.

of the coal-miner is typical, therefore, of the great majority of those who produce minerals.

Coal-mining. Fifty years ago mining was carried on almost entirely by hand. Lying on his side, the miner used a pickax to cut under a wall of coal, close to the floor, as far as he could reach. Then, after putting up timbers to prevent a cave-in, he bored a hole into the top of the ledge of coal, inserted a charge of powder, lighted a fuse, and took

to his heels. When the smoke had cleared away, he shoveled the fallen coal into a car and started it for the mine shaft.

The work of most miners is still done in part with pick and shovel; but the labor is lightened by machinery, and the task is divided among a number of workers. First of all come the cutters, using a machine operated by electricity to undercut a wall of coal. The next to appear are the shooters; with an electrical or a compressed-air drill they bore a hole for the blasting and insert a cartridge, which is set off at the close of the day. In the morning come the shovelers to load the cars, and the drivers to take them to the tracks in the main passageways. Timberers, meanwhile, are busy placing upright posts and beams wherever supports are needed. Electric lights, railroads, power hoists, and automatic ventilating systems are common features today in deep mines. Electricity lightens the miner's work.



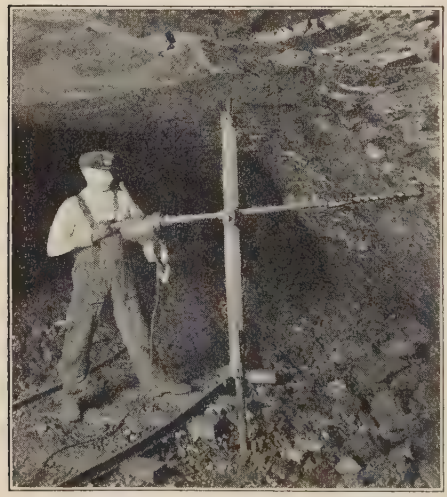
UNDERCUTTING COAL

This electrical machine is cutting a wide, deep groove in the vein of coal in preparation for the blasting. In many mines such grooves are made by hand with pick and shovel.

Opportunities and training. Mining requires three kinds of work. The first consists of organizing and managing the property, including the purchase of supplies, the sale of the product, and the employment of labor. The second is the task of mining engineers; they plan the shafts and passages in the mine, determine the nature of supports and equipment, provide for ventilation and drainage, and arrange the cheapest ways to remove the minerals. The

third is the job of the miners, skilled and unskilled; they go to the deposits, remove them from the earth, and make them available for human needs.

Opportunities as managers of mines are few; usually only persons with unusual capacity or with property can obtain such positions; business training and experience are both essential for the work. The field for mining engineers is broader. A person who wishes to enter the profession must, however, have a technical education in high school and in college, including a thorough acquaintance with such subjects as geology, mineralogy, physics, chemistry, sanitation, mathematics, mechanics, and metallurgy; he must also be acquainted with machinery and should be familiar with the practical aspects of mining. Miners, the third class of workers, should have at least a common-school education. They must know how to handle explosives and mining machines, and should also understand how to timber the ceiling of a mine, how to judge rock strains, and how to apply first-aid principles if accidents occur.



DRILLING A SHOT HOLE

With an electric drill the operator is boring a deep hole for the blasting charge, which is exploded later by a fuse or by electricity.

Miners ordinarily make from $4 to $8 a day, when working. The earnings of cutters, shooters, and loaders usually depend on the tonnage of their output, whereas drivers generally receive a daily wage. Managers and

mining engineers as a rule receive good incomes, working with few exceptions on a salary basis.

Disadvantages. Mining is at best a dark, dirty job. In spite of automatic ventilators, the air is usually full of coal dust, which blackens the skin, penetrates the clothing, enters the ears and nose, and finds lodgment in the lungs. Cleanliness when at work is impossible.

Mining is also dangerous. Hardly a day passes when a miner does not risk his life from falling rocks, cave-ins, fire, gas pockets, and premature explosions. Every million tons of coal we use, it is said, costs six lives. A single cave-in or fire sometimes kills scores of men. Improved methods of mining and the introduction of telephones, electric gongs, fireproof shafts, and other protective devices have lessened fatalities, but the death rate is still high.

Mining usually offers irregular employment, a coal-miner seldom having work for more than two hundred and fifty days in a year and on the average being employed only two or three days a week. Mining, perhaps more than any other great occupation, has too many workers. The coal industry, according to some authorities, would be much better off if one fourth of the miners would take up some other line of work.

Living conditions in many mining communities are unattractive and depressing. The dwelling places are often dingy, boxlike structures with little or no variety in plan or appearance. Opportunities for wholesome recreation and amusement are limited. The general outlook is drab and monotonous. In some places, however, during recent years model houses have replaced shacks, good schools have been established, and ugliness has given way to beauty.

Summary. Agriculture, lumbering, forestry, and mining are the great earth occupations. They underlie all industry. Without them life as we know it would be impossible. The farmer supplies us with food by cultivating the soil and raising live stock; the lumberman furnishes us with material

for building and manufacturing by harvesting trees; the forester protects our streams of water, our soil, and our lumber by preserving and replanting forests; the miner provides us with the essentials for industry by making available the mineral resources of the earth. Agriculture, lumbering, forestry, and mining all offer work that contributes to the basal needs of life. All four occupations require strength, endurance, and dexterity, and, with the exception of mining, all offer work under the open sky. In each occupation a common-school education is valuable, and technical training is essential for professional foresters, mining engineers, and scientific farmers.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What two metals are of greatest use in the world today? Give reasons for your answer. Name the mineral products of your county. Which is the most important?

2. Name furnishings or equipment in your home for which you are indebted to the miner. What materials in your school come from mines?

3. Which do you consider the more important, the work of the lumberman or the work of the miner? Give reasons.

4. In what important respect does mining differ from all other industries? Be definite. What do you regard as the main advantage in mining as an occupation? the chief disadvantage?

5. Which occupation described in this chapter is most attractive to you? Why? Which is least attractive? Why? In which are workers most needed? least needed? Which is of most importance in your part of the country? in the country as a whole?

6. Tell about the most interesting farmer, lumberman, or miner you ever knew.

7. Mention, if possible, one way of gaining a living from the earth not discussed in this chapter.

8. *Reports for volunteers:*

a. The mining of aluminum or sulphur.

b. The Mesabi iron range.

c. How coal was formed.
d. Placer gold-mining.
e. Lead-mining in Wisconsin or Missouri.
f. The mining of radium.
g. A trip through a mine.

THINGS TO DO

1. A committee of volunteers make a wall map showing in colors the sections of the country in which agriculture, lumbering, forestry, and mining are important industries. Use a different color for each industry.

2. Make a wall map of your state showing, county by county, the sections in which the industries named in No. 1 are important.

3. Invite a farmer to tell the class what he likes about farming. Send similar invitations, if possible, to a lumberman, a forester, and a miner. Be prepared to question each speaker about his occupation.

4. Visit one of the following: a dairy farm, a fruit farm, a market garden, a stock farm, a lumber camp, an iron mine, a coal mine, a clay pit, a gold mine, or an oil well. Before making the trip write six questions for which you will try to secure answers. Report your experience in class.

5. Choose a committee to find the amount and value of the agricultural, forest, and mineral products of your county. Show the results in a graph as well as in figures. Ask your librarian for sources of information.

6. Make a table showing the main attractions, chief disadvantages, and necessary qualifications for agriculture, lumbering, forestry, and mining. Copy the form below.

	Agriculture	Lumbering	Forestry	Mining
1. Attractions				
2. Disadvantages				
3. Qualifications				

7. Analyze your own fitness for agriculture, lumbering, forestry, or mining. Be prepared to name one of the four occupations for which you think yourself best fitted and to state what desirable qualities you lack for such work.

8. Ask your school librarian to write to the United States Civil Service Commission, Washington, D.C., and request a recent civil-service examination for a position in the National Forest Service. Choose a member of the class to tell about the examination when the questions arrive.

9. Choose a member of the class to write to universities in your state, requesting catalogues and bulletins showing the courses offered in agriculture, forestry, and mining, and to report what he finds.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "The Promise of the Soil," F. Norris, *America's Message*, 155–158.
2. "Flowing Gold," Rex Beach, *ibid.*, 159–165.
3. "Luther Burbank, Plant-Breeder," *Heroes of Progress*, 106–114.
4. * "Farming with Machinery," H. W. Quaintance, *In Our Times*, 19–22.
5. "The Marvellous Exploits of Paul Bunyan," W. B. Langhead, *ibid.*, 283–293.
6. "A Marble Quarry," W. F. Rocheleau, *ibid.*, 302–306.
7. "In the Earth Beneath," W. G. Beymer, *ibid.*, 307–315.
8. "The Bank Fishermen," J. B. Connolly, *ibid.*, 343–349.
9. "Some Great Advances of Neolithic Times," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 39–43.
10. "The Effects of Machinery upon Rural Life," *ibid.*, 77–87.
11. "Helping the Farmer's Wife," *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*, 83–104.
12. * "The Riverman," S. E. White, *The Worker and his Work*, 131–140.
13. "An Apiary," M. Maeterlinck, *ibid.*, 152.
14. * "In the Quarries," E. Phillpotts, *ibid.*, 218–229.
15. "The Department of Agriculture," *The American Government*, 213–226.
16. "The Bureau of Fisheries," *ibid.*, 267–272.
17. * "How the Farmer Feeds the World," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, I, 43–48.
18. * "The Story of Coal," *ibid.*, II, 811–815.
19. "Working with Trawl, Net, and Line," *ibid.*, III, 1282–1286.
20. "From Logging-Camp to Sawmill," *ibid.*, V, 2076–2083.
21. "Nature's Chief Tool and its Amazing Powers," *ibid.*, IX, 3693–3697.
22. "Earning a Living from the Earth," *Readings in Community Life*, Part V, section 2.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. *Two Years before the Mast*, by Richard H. Dana. Macmillan.
2. *Boys' Book of Forest Rangers*, by Irving Crump. Dodd.
3. *Secrets of the Earth*, by Chelsea C. Fraser. Crowell.

4. *The Story of Oil*, by W. S. Tower. Appleton.
5. * *The Story of a Piece of Coal*, by E. H. Martin. Appleton.
6. *All among the Loggers*, by C. B. Burleigh. Lothrop.
7. *The Training of a Forester*, by Gifford Pinchot. Lippincott.
8. *A Year in a Coal Mine*, by Joseph Husband. Houghton.
9. * *Diggers in the Earth*, by Eva M. Tappan. Houghton.
10. *Opportunities in Farming*, by Edward O. Dean. Harper.
11. * *The Story of Agriculture in the United States*, by Albert H. Sanford. Heath.
12. *A Son of the Middle Border*, by Hamlin Garland. Macmillan.
13. *Field, Forest, and Farm*, by Jean H. C. Fabre. Century.
14. * *The Farmer and his Friends*, by Eva M. Tappan. Houghton.
15. *The Story of Lumber*, by Sarah W. Bassett. Penn.
16. *All about Treasures of the Earth*, by F. A. Talbot. Funk.
17. *New Business of Farming*, by J. A. Dimock. Stokes.
18. *Boy with the U. S. Foresters*, by Francis W. Rolt-Wheeler. Lothrop.
19. *The Farmer of Tomorrow*, by F. I. Anderson. Macmillan.
20. *Book of Forestry*, by F. F. Moore. Appleton.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *Marian Frear's Summer*, by Margaret Ashmun. Macmillan.
2. * *The Virginian*, by Owen Wister. Macmillan.
3. *The Blazed Trail*, by Stewart E. White. Doubleday.
4. *Scott Barton, Logger*, by E. G. Cheyney. Appleton.
5. *The Silver Horde*, by Rex Beach. Harper.
6. * *The Prospector*, by Ralph Connor. Revell.
7. *Songs of the Yukon*, by Robert W. Service. Barse.
8. *The Real Diary of the Worst Farmer*, by Henry A. Shute. Houghton.
9. *The Riverman*, by Stewart E. White. Doubleday.
10. *The Prairie Shrine*, by Robert J. Horton. Chelsea House.
11. *Tom Wickham, Corn-Grower*, by Carl Brandt. Reilly.
12. *Wilderness Honey*, by Frank Pollock. Century.
13. *Jim Spurling, Fisherman*, by Albert W. Tolman. Harper.

CHAPTER XXVII

MANUFACTURING AND BUILDING

When we build, let us think that we build forever. — JOHN RUSKIN

SECTION I. PLANNING THE PRODUCT

Teamwork in production. The farmer furnishes us with cotton, flax, and wool; the miner supplies us with iron, coal, clay, lead, zinc, and copper. Before we can use such materials, however, the cotton must be made into cloth; the clay must be changed into bricks, vases, and pottery, and the iron must be transformed into needles, steel rails, bridges, and skyscrapers. In other words, the farmer and the miner provide us with materials; the manufacturer, the mechanic, and the builder change the materials into forms that satisfy our wants. Both groups of workers are necessary to supply us with clothing, household goods, and buildings in which to live, work, and play.

Methods of work. Before the Industrial Revolution, shoes, tools, wagons, and furniture were made by hand; the word "manufacture," in fact, means "to make by hand." Production was carried on in cottages or in small sheds, which with few exceptions belonged to the workers. For hundreds of years the makers of manufactured goods had been composed of three groups: first, the master craftsman, who owned the shop and who usually had several helpers working with him; second, journeymen, who had mastered the trade and who generally worked for wages a few years before going into business for themselves; third, apprentices, who, in order to learn a trade, went to work at the age of twelve or thirteen for a master craftsman,

remaining in service from seven to ten years and receiving instruction, food, clothing, and lodging.

The factory, however, has changed both the methods of production and the types of work. Goods are now made by machinery, work is highly specialized, and industries are organized in many diverse departments.

Mind and muscle. In order to make things which will satisfy our wants, we must first of all think them out. Every tool, machine, and vehicle we use originated in someone's mind. In the words of Berton Braley,

> Back of the motor's humming,
> Back of the bolts that sing,
> Back of the hammer's drumming,
> Back of the cranes that swing,
> There is the eye which scans them,
> Watching through stress and strain,
> There is the mind which plans them —
> Back of the brawn, the brain!

Kinds of work. The first step, then, in the construction of buildings or in the manufacture of goods is the planning of the work to be done. The main workers engaged in such tasks are inventors, architects, designers, draftsmen, and engineers.

The inventor and the promoter differ somewhat from the others in the group. Their contribution is ideas; they think things out in ways which have occurred to no one else. The inventor, for instance, dreams of a new machine, or of talking over wires, or of flying through the air. The promoter sees a bridge where no bridge is, or an industry where none exists, or a skyscraper on a piece of vacant land.

The inventor sometimes makes his machine as well as plans it, and the promoter occasionally oversees the construction of his project. But often the task of bringing their ideas to accomplishment requires the efforts of many other workers.

Importance of graphic arts. The detailed planning of any construction project, in the main, is done by architects, designers, draftsmen, and engineers. Everyone is familiar with their labor as shown in maps, charts, graphs, and blue prints. Construction cannot start until they have drawn designs, prepared models, or blocked out the work to be done.

THE ARCHITECT

Until the drawings for a building have been made by the architect, not a shovelful of dirt is turned on the site. Carpenters, masons, and steel-workers must await his plans.

The architect. Small buildings are planned, as a rule, by master carpenters or building contractors who will do the actual building, but large structures are designed by trained architects. After finding the kind of structure his client wants, an architect usually prepares a rough sketch of the building, giving suggestions concerning the materials, and an approximate estimate of the cost. If his ideas are approved, he then draws final plans, estimates, and directions for the edifice. During construction he examines building operations from time to time to see that the plans are properly carried out. He also usually decides questions which may arise between the owner and the contractor. In payment for his services an architect generally receives a fee of from 5 to 10 per cent of the cost of the structure. The earnings of architects vary from $2000 to $50,000 or more a year.

Specialization in architecture is common. Some architects design nothing but homes, some limit themselves to ships, some concentrate on churches, and some confine

their efforts to factories, railway terminals, bridges, or school buildings. The last census reported 18,048 men and 137 women architects in the United States.

Qualifications and education of architects. A high-grade architect is an artist, engineer, scientist, and business man combined. He needs not only a technical knowledge of building materials, construction processes, and architectural problems, but must also understand plumbing, heating, lighting, sanitation, electrical engineering, interior decorating, and business methods. The ideal architect, it is said, should have "the soul of the poet, the eyes of the painter, the practicability of the shopkeeper, and the mechanical knowledge of the master craftsman."

If you wish to become an architect, first go through high school, giving especial attention to mathematics, history, drawing, and French or German (both, if possible), and then take a four years' course in architecture in a university or technical school. Add to such training, if possible, study and travel in Europe; you cannot have too broad a basis for architecture.

Designers. Architects deal chiefly with the erection of buildings; designers, with the making of manufactured articles. Designers prepare the original plans or sketches for a new product. Their work is essential in the metal trades, in woodworking plants, and in clay-product establishments. They make designs for hats, shoes, dresses, jewelry, and furniture as well as patterns for cloth and wall paper. Their drawings are as varied as the products of manufacturing concerns.

Qualifications and training of designers. A designer should first of all have imagination, originality, inventive ability, and sound business sense, for he must create designs and models which are both artistic and practical. He must also be able to solve problems of construction and suggest remedies for mechanical difficulties. A machine-designer, for example, may be called upon to devise a new method

for oiling the main bearings of an automobile, or may be asked to design a machine like one in use but suited for heavier work at higher speed. A designer of clothing or millinery must create designs for garments, shoes, or hats, and must also select the materials best suited to fulfill the designs.

A designer must be an expert draftsman. He must have a thorough knowledge of the industry in which he is engaged. A machine-designer, for example, should have practical machine-shop experience; a lithograph-designer must understand color combinations and printing; a designer of garments must be familiar with garment-making, with tendencies in fashion, and with the market.

If you wish to become a designer, secure first of all a high-school education; in addition, if possible, study designing in a technical school or college of engineering. If your work is to be in the mechanical trades, obtain thorough training in mathematics, mechanical and free-hand drawing, physics, foundry practice, and machine construction. If you wish to be a designer in a printing plant, clothing industry, or jewelry establishment, master the fundamentals of art and design as used in such undertakings.

Draftsmen. Draftsmen are workers who, with the original sketch of an architect or designer as a guide, make the drawings which picture in detail every part of the structure or article which is to be made. From the drawings of the draftsman come the tracings and blue prints which direct the actual work of construction.

In many respects the work of all draftsmen is alike, whether they are employed in wall-paper plants, millinery establishments, or metal-working industries. Together with architects and designers, their main implements and materials are pencils, pens, ink, paper, drawing instruments, protractors, T squares, triangles, transparent cloth, blue-print paper, and drawing boards. As a rule draftsmen work in clean, well-lighted offices, their hours of labor being

about the same as those of other office employees, ranging from seven to nine hours a day. According to the last census there are in the United States over 52,000 draftsmen, of which number almost 2000 are women. Expert draftsmen generally have little trouble in securing steady employment. The earnings vary from $1200 to $5000 a year.

DRAFTSMEN AT WORK

If you will visit any scene of construction, you will see, conspicuously placed, large blue sheets of paper traced with white lines. These are the blue prints which furnish detailed directions for the work. They are made from the drawings of the draftsmen.

Qualifications and training of draftsmen. A draftsman must have good eyesight and a steady hand. He must be neat, painstaking, and absolutely accurate, for one error in his work may ruin a costly manufactured product. His drawings must show clearly and exactly each part of the article which is to be made, including the material, shape, surface, dimensions, and relations to other parts. A draftsman must be a master of mechanical drawing, and should possess ability in free-hand drawing. Since he must be able

to concentrate upon a single piece of work for hours at a time, persons who enjoy tasks requiring physical activity are likely to find the work tedious and wearisome.

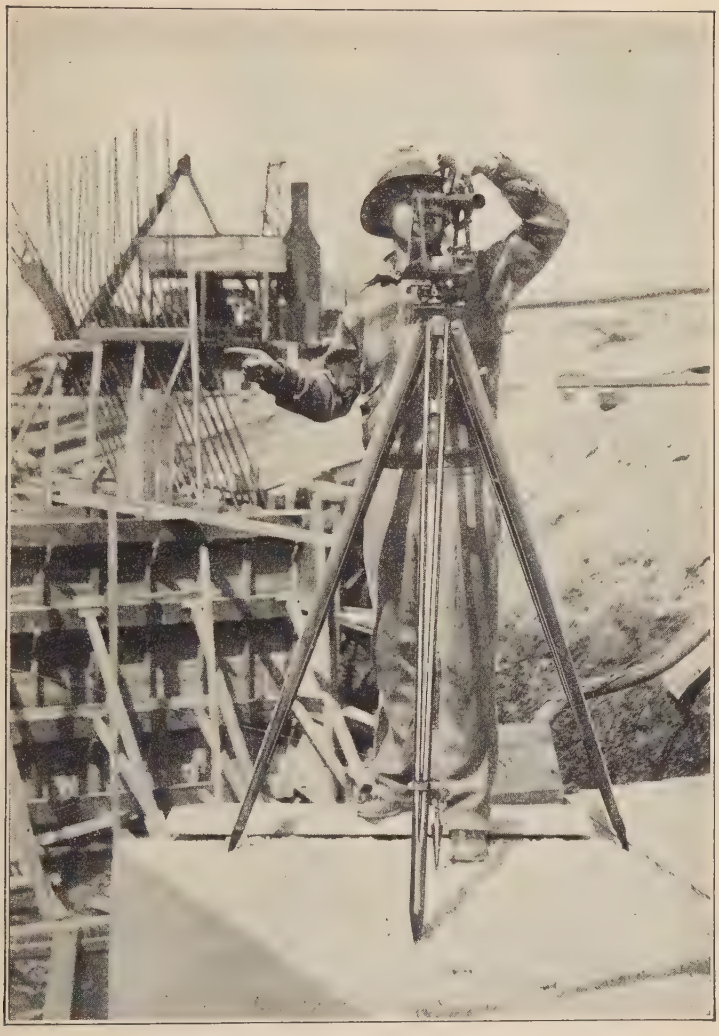
If you wish to become a draftsman or a designer, you may enter the occupation by serving as apprentice in the designing department of the industry in which you are interested. You should have completed high school, and it is advantageous to be a graduate of a college or university.

Engineering. Engineering includes the making of maps and surveys, the planning of railroads, subways, mines, highways, sewerage systems, and harbors, the designing of engines and ships, and the equipment and operation of machine shops, factories, waterworks, and electric-power stations. So varied has the work become that engineering now falls into many divisions, each a specialty.

Mechanical engineers, one of the most important groups in the profession, design tools, engines, and machinery. Civil engineers lay out roads, dig tunnels, and construct bridges, dams, lighthouses, and canals. Electrical engineers devise and install all sorts of electrical apparatus. Sanitary engineers plan waterworks, sewerage systems, garbage-disposal plants, and methods of street-cleaning. Mining engineers test mineral deposits and direct mining operations. Chemical engineers analyze materials used in manufacturing and carry on research enterprises in industrial laboratories. Marine engineers design and build ships. Other branches of the profession are architectural engineering, structural engineering, and automotive engineering. So important is the work of the engineer that, as one writer says,

> Without his presence in our mines we could get no more coal and ore, nor develop new fields. Without his help we could not transport products to a place of need with railways, steamers, motor trucks, and highways. Without his aid we should have no cities, no industries, no power. There is no business enterprise in which he does not mix at some time.[1]

[1] J. V. Lynn and E. S. Baird, *Engineering as a Life-Work*, 18.



THE ENGINEER

With his transit this construction engineer is making measurements and laying out the boundaries for the work to be done. Engineers must solve also other problems of construction if a building is to endure.

Qualifications and preparation for engineering. An engineer must have an inventive mind, imaginative power, scientific insight, and sound judgment. He must also be thoroughly dependable. He must know physics, chemistry, mechanics, and mathematics, and should be familiar with economics, history, political science, and business practices. He must also have professional training in the technical subjects involved in his work. Superior engineers are in demand, and opportunities in the profession for able, hard-working men are practically unlimited.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name, if possible, any of nature's gifts which satisfy us just as they come from the earth.

2. Tell about an incident in your own life illustrating the truth of this quotation: "Back of the brawn, the brain!"

3. Mention occupations in your community which may be entered through service as an apprentice.

4. Bring to class an example of the work of an architect, an engineer, a designer, or a draftsman.

5. Why do architects and engineers need broader education than designers and draftsmen?

6. What work does your school offer of value to a pupil who desires to become an architect, a designer, a draftsman, or a mechanical engineer?

7. *Research topics for volunteers:*
   a. Michelangelo and St. Peter's Church.
   b. Sir Christopher Wren and St. Paul's Cathedral.
   c. The building of the national Capitol.

Section II. Working in Wood

Carrying out plans. The first step in making things, as shown in the preceding section, is the planning of the work to be done. The next step is the transforming of the plans

into finished products. The character of the work depends on the nature of the product and the sort of material to be used in construction. Most industrial enterprises need workers in the mechanical, plastic, or textile trades.

Wood and metal are the chief materials used in the mechanical trades. These trades play the most important part in the making of household goods, the manufacture of automobiles, farm implements, and machinery, and the construction of ships, railways, bridges, and buildings. Carpenters, blacksmiths, machinists, electricians, and plumbers belong to the mechanic group of workers. This section is devoted to workers in wood.

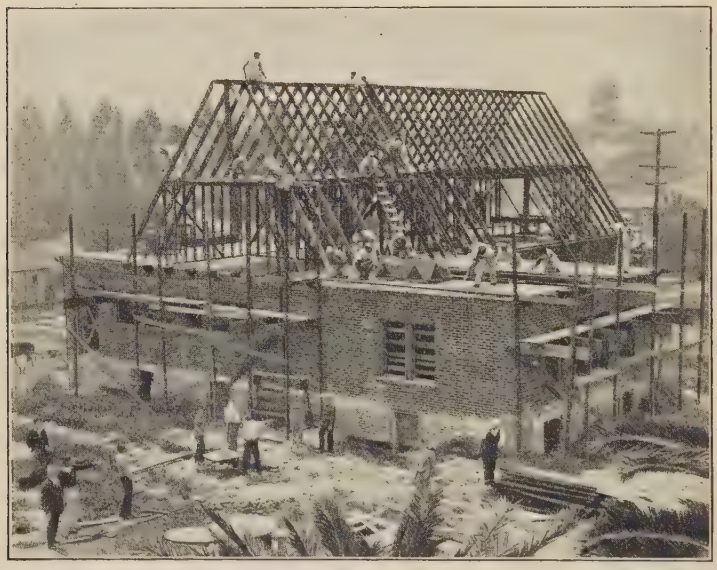
Use of wood. Have you ever noticed how many of the things you use are made of wood? Examine the chairs, tables, beds, bookcases, and desks in your home, or look about you at school or at church. Do you not find that with few exceptions most articles in everyday use are composed of wood?

Carpenters. The oldest and most important worker in wood is the carpenter. He furnishes the largest part of the labor needed on all wooden structures. He erects the scaffolding used by bricklayers, stonemasons, and structural-iron workers, and puts in the woodwork in all buildings of whatever sort. The skills required in his tasks form the basis of all woodworking occupations.

A carpenter works largely with his hands. His chief tools are saws, hatchets, planes, hammers, squares, rules, pencils, chisels, files, and screw drivers. He deals almost entirely with lumber in the form of beams, planks, shingles, moldings, frames, and casings. His labor consists largely of sawing, nailing, planing, chiseling, fastening, and fitting materials together.

General carpentry requires two main kinds of labor. The first, known as rough work, is carried on almost wholly out of doors. It consists of such tasks as the erection of scaffolding, the construction of the framework of a building,

the placing of rafters, and the raising of the roof. The second, known as finish work, consists largely of indoor activities such as placing window frames, hanging doors, putting in woodwork, building stairways, laying floors, and installing locks; finishing work on the outside includes



CARPENTRY

Carpenters are needed on all types of buildings. They are erecting the rafters on this brick house and will do the interior woodwork. Even a concrete or all-steel structure requires carpentry work for the scaffolding.

the roofing, the siding, the building of porches, verandas or piazzas, and the construction of gables and cornices.

In the old days a carpenter had to do a great deal of planing and shaping of materials, especially in connection with the windows and doors of a building. Although his work still requires skill along such lines, his task is greatly lightened by the planing mill; here he can secure windows, casings, and door frames ready to be installed.

Cabinet-makers. Among the workers in wood the cabinet-maker and pattern-maker stand next in importance to the carpenter. Some authorities, indeed, consider cabinet-making and pattern-making mere divisions of carpentry. Cabinet-makers use the same tools as the carpenter, and also employ woodworking machinery in their tasks. They make and repair all kinds of furniture, including desks, chairs, cabinets, and instrument cases. Most of their products are made of hard wood such as cherry, walnut, or mahogany. Their work, which requires a high degree of skill, is generally carried on indoors.

THE CABINET-MAKER

This man at work with his chisel making fine furniture is an artist as well as an artisan.

Pattern-makers. In the metal and in the plastic trades the pattern-maker plays a very important part. He is the one who puts into material form the plans of the designers. Using the drawings of the draftsman as a guide, he prepares the patterns of each part of the article which is to be manufactured or the building which is to be erected in case concrete is to be used as material.

Patterns or models are needed for all metal castings and are also required for many products composed of rubber, glass, mortar, or clay. The importance of the pattern-maker's work in the iron industry alone becomes apparent when we remember that the castings which form vital parts of locomotives, furnaces, automobiles, engines, and reapers, are all made from patterns which he prepares. Without his aid modern industry would be at a standstill.

Nearly all patterns, or models, are made of wood, although metal also is used when many similar parts are to be

manufactured. In beginning work the pattern-maker first studies the draftsman's drawing carefully in order to learn exactly what is wanted; he next figures out how to make the pattern so as to avoid waste of material and labor; then he constructs the pattern, using for the purpose both hand and machine tools.

Qualifications and preparation of woodworkers. Much specialization exists among woodworkers. The demands upon carpenters differ in many ways from the demands made upon makers of cabinets or patterns. The work of carpenters alone falls into three main divisions, namely, that of rough carpenters, finish carpenters, and stair-builders.

In spite of differences in tasks all woodworkers need qualities and training which are alike in many respects. They must have natural ability to work with their hands, must be able to use the carpenter's tools with skill and speed, must know how to read drawings and blue prints, must be acquainted with woodworking machinery, and must be able to adapt themselves quickly to changing conditions.

Preparation and training of woodworkers. A common-school education is essential in all woodworking trades. Much better is high-school training, especially for the work required of bridge carpenters, cabinet-makers, ship carpenters, and pattern-makers. A knowledge of mathematics, mechanical drawing, English, and business methods is of great service in daily tasks, and training along technical lines is invaluable.

Opportunities in woodworking trades. A million workers, or more, are engaged in woodworking trades in the United States. Nine tenths of these are carpenters. The rest are cabinet-makers, pattern-makers, lathers, and wood-turners. Almost all are men.

Entrance to carpentry may be gained through four years of service as an apprentice. Graduates of high schools or technical schools are generally required to serve only three years, and in some instances but two. An expert carpenter

with ability to manage men may win promotion as assistant foreman or foreman in charge of a number of men employed on a large structure. From this position he may become superintendent of building operations. As he widens his knowledge of construction and business he may, through thrift and energy, establish a business for himself as a building contractor. Cabinet-makers and pattern-makers also may rise from one position to another until they become superintendents of their respective departments or open up shops of their own. The demand for skilled woodworkers is large, employment is steady, wages are high, and opportunities for advancement are good.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention woodworking occupations not described in this section. Name the woodworking trades in your community.

2. List the articles in your living room at home or in your study room at school in which wood enters. So far as possible, name the woodworking occupations that contributed to the making of each article.

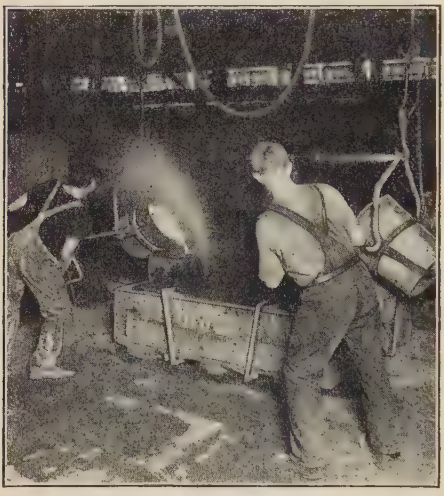
3. Which worker appears more dependent on skill with his hands — the carpenter, pattern-maker, or cabinet-maker? Give reasons for your opinion.

4. Do woodworking occupations seem to be growing in importance? Give reasons.

Section III. Working in Metal

The use of metal. We live in an age of iron and steel. More and more, as years go by, metal is displacing wood as material for buildings, furniture, interior finishings, and office equipment. Steel tools or steel machines play essential parts in producing our food, wearing apparel, household utensils, and transportation facilities. In one way or another metal contributes to the satisfying of most of our wants.

Among the mechanics who make and handle metal products, the most important are molders, iron-rollers, machinists, forgemen, sheet-metal workers, structural-iron workers, plumbers, and electricians. These craftsmen work in factories, on buildings, in shipyards, and upon bridges. Their labors make possible the world of today.



HANDLING LIQUID METAL

The molten iron which these men are pouring into molds will come out eventually as parts of a stove.

Molders and core-makers. These workmen play an essential part in the manufacture of all machinery. They make the metal castings which give final form to the ideas of the designer and the models of the pattern-maker. Sometimes they make castings of steel, sometimes of iron, and sometimes of aluminum, bronze, or brass. Although the details of a molder's task vary with the kind of metal used, the main activities in the trade are much the same.

To make a casting, a molder takes a pattern, sets it in damp sand, pounds the sand firmly around the pattern, and withdraws the latter, leaving a hole of the exact size and shape of the desired part. In some instances the molder finds it necessary to place in the mold a core, composed of baked sand prepared by the core-maker, so as to shape the inside of the casting. This done, the molder fills the hole in the sand with molten metal, lets it cool, and then removes and cleans the casting. The latter is now ready

for the machinist who cuts away all rough places and shapes the casting to the exact dimensions called for in the draftsman's drawing.

Most of the work of the molder and core-maker is done by hand with brushes, rammers, shovels, swabs, sifting screens, and leveling bars. Heavy castings are carried on cars or by traveling cranes from one point in the foundry to another. Accuracy, mechanical skill, knowledge of melting and mixing metals, practical acquaintance with the appliances used in the trade, physical strength and health, — all these are necessary for success in molding or core-making. Training as an apprentice varies from two to four years, depending on the education and skill of the beginner.

Machinists. Machinists help to finish castings, fashion appliances, make tools, and build machines. Classified on the basis of their work, machinists fall into four main groups: (1) machine operators who turn out large quantities of single parts or articles; (2) all-round machinists, who construct and repair the metal portions of various kinds of appliances and machines; (3) assemblers or erectors, who put the pieces of a machine together and start it in operation; and (4) tool-makers, who prepare the dies, gauges, and fixtures which are essential parts on all metal-working machines.

A machine operator ordinarily works with only one machine; his task, therefore, requires little training or education. An all-round machinist, on the contrary, must use hand tools such as squares, hammers, rules, files, calipers, protractors, and micrometers, and machine tools such as planers, lathes, grinders, and drill presses. An expert machinist needs thorough training and education. He should be at least a high-school graduate, with ability in mathematics, chemistry, physics, and mechanical drawing.

An assembler, or erector, must have general mechanical experience and must understand the entire construction and

operation of the machines which he builds. Like the expert machinist, an erector should have a high-school education, including a mastery of the basic technical subjects.

A tool-maker is the most highly skilled worker in a machine shop. His tasks demand the utmost accuracy, sometimes requiring measurements to one ten-thousandth of an inch. A tool-maker needs keen eyesight, steady nerves, and a thorough education to succeed in his work.

Forgemen. Machine parts not subject to heavy strain are ordinarily made as castings. Parts which must stand severe tension or shock are produced by forging; for forged steel is the strongest metal product known.

The workers who make forged steel are called forgemen. Their raw material usually consists of wrought iron in the form of rods, bars, and ingots prepared by workmen called rollers. Among the products of forgemen are steel bars, naval guns, crank shafts, engine frames, and axles for railroad cars and automobiles.

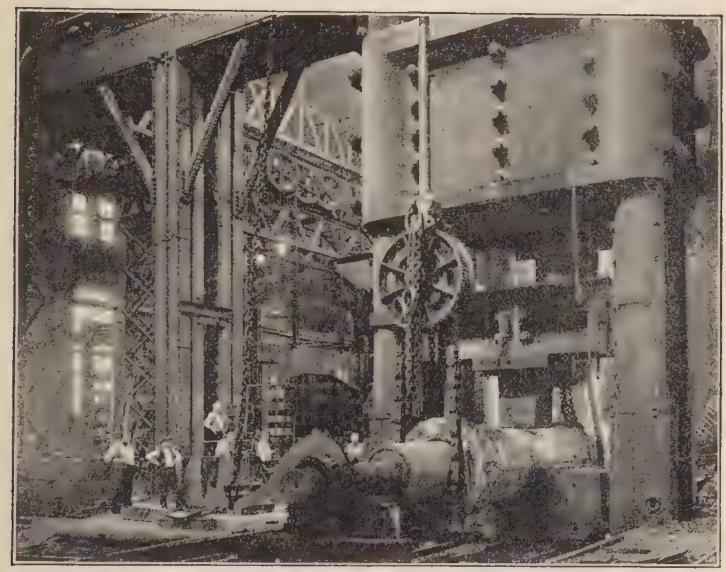
Forgemen carry on their tasks in large manufacturing plants and, with some exceptions, do their work with the help of machines, most important of which are the hydraulic press, the steam hammer, and the drop hammer. The first two machines are used for large steel pieces, the drop hammer for small parts. A crew of six or seven men is ordinarily required to handle a steam hammer or a hydraulic press; a single workman can usually manage a drop hammer.

Forging is rough, heavy, dirty work carried on amid intense heat. It requires a strong back and ability to endure strain. It involves a knowledge of chemistry, physics, mathematics, metallurgy, and mechanical drawing. Training in such studies is essential to one who desires to rise to the position of foreman, manager, or superintendent of a plant.

Sheet-metal workers. A very different sort of task from that of the forgeman is performed by the sheet-metal

worker. From thin sheets of tin, zinc, copper, brass, or galvanized iron, he fashions, with hand and machine tools, such articles as skillets, pans, buckets, stoves, automobile bodies, metal doors, household goods, and office equipment.

In order to cut, stamp, or punch a sheet of metal into a desired form, a sheet-metal worker must know how to



MAN AND HIS SERVANT MACHINERY

So gigantic are the machines used in the steel industry that man seems to be dwarfed in comparison. This hydraulic press weighs fourteen thousand tons.

read drawings. He must be able to cut metal accurately both by hand and with a cutting machine. He must be familiar with pattern-making, shop mathematics, and mechanical drawing. If he wishes to become a foreman or superintendent in a factory or to open a shop of his own, he must also be able to compute in material, time, and labor the cost of doing a job or making an article in order to furnish reliable estimates.

Metal trades in building. During the last thirty or forty years a great change has taken place in building materials. Formerly almost nothing except wood, brick, and stone was used; nowadays both metal and concrete are of great importance. Indeed, as we have seen, metal plays a large part not only in the structure of bridges and skyscrapers, but also in interior fittings and equipment. With the change in materials have come new industries and new occupations.

Sheet-metal workers, for example, now fall into two large groups: first, those who work in shops, as explained above, and secondly, those employed in the installation of furnaces, metal roofing, and waterspouts, or of metal doors, moldings, cornices, and display signs.

An expert sheet-metal worker engaged in building operations must be a skilled craftsman, for he works largely with hand tools. He must understand the principles of pattern-making, because he is frequently called upon to lay out a job. He needs training in mechanical and free-hand drawing, business methods, geometry, and the elements of architecture, for his work repeatedly requires information and skills along such lines. A high-school education, while not essential, is a profitable investment for anyone who wishes to become proficient in the trade.

Structural-iron workers. "Cowboys of the sky," as structural-iron workers are sometimes called, became important when steel was adopted as building material for bridges and skyscrapers. The business of structural-iron workers is to raise, put into place, and join together the great steel beams and girders which form the framework of such structures. After the steel parts are hoisted, men called erectors match and fasten the pieces into place temporarily with a few bolts. Three or four men follow and link the structure solidly together with red-hot rivets. First, a forgeman heats and tosses the rivets to the point where the work is in progress; here a buffer man catches the rivets in a bucket, slips them into the proper holes, and

presses them firmly against the steel beam, while a riveter flattens them into place with the rapid-fire, powerful blows of an air hammer. The work is done quickly, for the rivets must be fastened while still red-hot.

Structural-iron workers must be strong, alert, able to stand exposure. They should be level-headed, cool under emergencies, courageous and daring in time of danger. They must be good climbers, experienced riveters, and skilled in the use of wrench, hammer, chisel, and reamer. They must be able to handle riggings, derricks, cranes, and hoisting machinery. Their task contains many hazards, but it brings high wages, and most men find the work varied and fascinating.

A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW

High above the earth the riveter goes about his daily task, unconcerned where some of us would be dizzy.

Steam fitters and plumbers. These mechanics contribute to both our comfort and our health. Their work is so closely related that we may consider them together. Steam fitters install steam and hot-water heating systems, refrigerating plants, and lines of piping used in factories and large buildings. Plumbers install bathroom fixtures, kitchen sinks, and drains; they also lay gas lines, water pipes, and sewage connections.

Steam fitters and plumbers work largely with hand tools. Among the implements which they commonly use are wrenches, pipe-cutters, hammers, files, drills, pliers, soldering irons, the blowtorch, and cold chisels. Their work

demands accuracy in fitting pipes together, skill in handling various tools, ability to read mechanical drawings and blue prints, familiarity with the laws relating to sanitation, and a general acquaintance with heating and ventilating plants, building construction, and sewage systems.

MOLDING THE PLATES

Today most books are printed from electroplates. These men are taking impressions of type pages in wax. In these wax molds the printing plates will be made.

Boys who wish to become steam fitters or plumbers need at least a common-school education. Those who have not completed high school must serve an apprenticeship usually four years in length. The position of foreman, contractor, or sanitary engineer can generally be attained only by workers of exceptional ability who have studied in trade schools or technical schools the technical subjects involved in plumbing. In most states no one can engage in the trade without passing a state examination.

Electricians. The electrician, like the plumber, contributes greatly to the comforts and conveniences of life. He makes possible the services of electricity in our houses, churches, theaters, factories, and ships. He wires our buildings, installs our lights, doorbells, buzzers, and telephones, and provides us with switchboards and connections for radios, fans, sewing machines, phonographs, and vacuum cleaners. An important part of his work in large structures is the installation of connections for elevators.

Most of the work of the electrician is done by hand with such tools as the saw, hammer, pliers, screw driver, wire-cutter, soldering iron, and fish tape. In new buildings he runs the wires and makes the connections before the plastering is applied or the final carpentering is done. In locating trouble, making repairs, or installing wires in an old building he must often do the work of both carpenter and plasterer, in order to leave a finished job.

An electrician should be able to plan the wiring for a building. He must know how to make all kinds of electrical repairs. He must be acquainted with the building code so as to observe the legal regulations for wiring. To become an electrical contractor or engineer, an electrician must understand physics, mathematics, and the elementary principles of architecture. Entrance to the trade is gained in most states only through a five-year apprenticeship and the passing of a state examination.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Explain the similarity between the work of the mechanics discussed in this section and that of the mechanics described in Section II.

2. What articles made of metal do you use every day? Can you name any articles containing no metal and made without the use of metal tools or machines?

3. Which is of greater service to man, — wood or iron? Give reasons for your opinion.

4. Name five metals other than iron or steel used widely by human beings. What occupations not mentioned in this section have grown from the use of the metals you name? Why do few women enter the metal trades?

5. Find the main difference between an iron casting and an iron forging. Which is more difficult to make? Why?

6. Which of the metal trades is the most attractive to you? Which is the most unattractive? Give reasons.

7. *Research topics for special reports:*
   a. How an air hammer works.
   b. How wrought iron is made.
   c. How jewelers make gold and silver castings.

Section IV. Fashioning Garments

How clothing developed. Man's first garment was probably the skin of an animal thrown around the shoulders or wrapped about the body. The need for warmer covering led to the cutting of holes for the arms, the tying of a skin about the neck, and the lacing of several skins together. Gradually pins, needles, and sewing developed.

Then came the discovery that clothes could be made from such animal fibers as wool, silk, and hair and out of such vegetable fibers as cotton and flax. During the same period instruments for spinning and weaving were made, taking the form, in time, of the spinning wheel and the hand loom. Centuries later the invention of the spinning jenny (1767) and the steam engine (1769) ended the handicraft method of producing thread and cloth and made the factory, instead of the home, the center of the textile industry.

Many years passed, however, before the factory became important as a producer of ready-made clothing. Not until our Civil War, when the entrance of hundreds of thousands of men into the army made necessary a large number of uniforms, did clothing factories become of consequence. Previously the garments of the great mass

of people had been made in the home by the women of the family.

At the present time clothing is composed almost entirely of cotton, wool, flax, silk, rubber, or leather. Fiber is turned into thread and thread into cloth, in mills devoted to such production. In tanneries and rubber factories leather and rubber are prepared for use. Most of our garments, including suits, coats, hats, gloves, shirts, collars, ties, shoes, stockings, and underwear, are factory-made. From the preceding statements it is apparent that occupations in the clothing industry center in mills and factories. In addition to the persons there employed, however, many garment-makers, as we shall see, work outside factory walls.

Making cloth. Nowadays most of the work in making cloth is done by machinery. The details of production vary somewhat, depending on the fiber, but the processes are much the same, especially in the case of cotton and woolen goods. The first step in production is the preparation of the cotton or wool for spinning; bales and bundles are opened, loosened by machinery, and thoroughly cleaned. Next, the fibers are made to lie parallel by carding or combing machines, and are then twisted or spun into thread, an operation ordinarily requiring the attention of a number of workers, each in charge of a machine or group of machines. The cloth is now woven on marvelous power looms, some of which are so constructed as to weave in the cloth figures, flowers, or geometrical designs, such as everyone has noticed in napkins and tablecloths. The cloth is next dyed or stamped, although sometimes the dyeing operation precedes the weaving. Last of all, the cloth is cleaned and prepared for the market.

The job of most workers in textile mills is to see that spinning and weaving continue without interruption. In many instances a single operator can look after eight or ten machines without difficulty, for all that is needed as a rule is to start the machine, keep it supplied with material,

and see that it runs smoothly. If a thread breaks, the loom will stop, thus notifying the worker that something is wrong; he must then knot the thread promptly and start the machine again. If an attachment gets out of order or any trouble arises which the worker cannot handle, he immediately reports the difficulty to the foreman or the machine-adjuster. Most workers in textile mills are women and girls.

A MODERN COBBLER

With the help of machinery a modern cobbler is able to turn out many times as much work as the old-time shoemaker, who had to depend on hand tools.

Manufacturing clothing. Garments for both men and women, as pointed out before, are now made for the most part in factories. Invention after invention has provided machines for cutting cloth, sewing seams, making buttonholes, sewing on buttons, inserting sleeves, fashioning pockets, and pressing garments. Modern shoe factories contain machines for cutting, cleaning, polishing, stitching, seaming, trimming edges, making buttonholes, inserting eyelets, driving nails, laying soles, and attaching heels.

Since each worker as a rule looks after a single process and handles only one kind of machine, production is divided among many persons. In garment factories at least a dozen different persons work on a single garment, and in the manufacture of shoes and of stockings several times that number coöperate in making the product. In a recent bulletin entitled *Descriptions of Occupations* the United States

Department of Labor lists more than one hundred lines of work as entering into the manufacture of suits; the number is almost as great in the manufacture of knit goods and of light clothing, such as shirts, overalls, and underwear.

Occupations in clothing industry. Employees in spinning mills, cloth-making factories, and ready-made-clothing plants are in large part unskilled or semiskilled workers. The task of tending machines is simple and can generally be learned in a few weeks or months. Even the jobs which require greater skill can be mastered in a year or so by alert, ambitious, energetic learners. To the preceding statement the work of designers, cutters, and machine-adjusters forms an exception; their tasks require careful training.

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CUTTING GARMENTS

With an electric cloth-cutting machine a garment-maker is able to cut out fifty or more garments at one time, thereby greatly reducing the cost of labor in the making of clothing.

Dressmaking and tailoring. Although the making of garments is carried on largely in factories, a demand still exists for dressmakers who will work in the home. Dressmakers are needed also for repair work and for remodeling, especially in stores selling ready-made clothing and in shops which make women's garments. Similarly, tailors are in demand in men's clothing stores and in shops in which custom tailoring is done. The last census report shows in the United States 235,855 dressmakers and seamstresses (not in factories) and 192,232 tailors. Almost all dressmakers and seamstresses are women, and about four fifths of the tailors are men.

Dressmakers and tailors must have good eyesight, and must be quick and skillful with their hands. They must be expert with needle and scissors, accurate in fitting garments, and up to date in their knowledge of the styles. Persons who desire to do tailoring for women find an artistic sense valuable, especially in selecting colors, choosing trimmings, and shaping garments.

Millinery. Since hat forms are now made in factories, the work of the modern milliner consists almost entirely of planning and placing the trimming. To do this successfully, a person must have a knowledge of fabrics and styles and an appreciation of color and design. The trade of millinery can usually be learned best in a small shop. If a girl has originality, good business judgment, and the qualities necessary for salesmanship, she can after a few years of experience successfully open a shop of her own.

Summary. Nature supplies us with raw material, but in most instances we must put the material in other shapes or forms to make it satisfy our wants. The making of such changes is the task of persons engaged in manufacturing and building.

The first step in manufacturing or construction is the planning of the work. This is the job of promoters, inventors, architects, engineers, designers, and draftsmen. The second step depends on the nature of the raw material and the product desired. If the material is wood, it is put into shape by carpenters, cabinet-makers, and pattern-makers. If the material is metal and the product is to be a casting, a pattern is framed, a mold is constructed, and the casting is made by a molder, the rough places being removed by a machinist. If the product is to be wrought steel, the red-hot metal is put through great steel rollers, or is forged and shaped by blacksmiths, forgemen, and machinists. If the product is to be a steel ship, a railroad, an automobile, or a skyscraper, the metal parts are made from wrought steel by molders, forgemen, and

machinists, and are put together by structural-iron workers, riveters, assemblers, and machinists. If the material consists of fibers, leather, or rubber, and the product is to be clothing, the work is done largely in factories by unskilled or semiskilled laborers, the chief exceptions being the tasks of designers, cutters, dressmakers, seamstresses, and tailors.

The main element, or feature, of the work of persons engaged in manufacturing or building occupations is manipulative skill. Although machinery plays an ever-increasing part in construction, hand work remains important, and manual expertness, with occasional exceptions, is essential for those desiring to enter such occupations. The contribution to community well-being of the workers engaged in building and manufacturing is beyond measure.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What materials make up the garments you are now wearing? Mention the different workers who probably helped to make your clothes.

2. Name the chief textile industries in your community. What materials do they use? Find the source from which the materials come and the chief markets for the manufactured products.

3. Give as many examples as you can of skilled occupations in the making of clothes. Mark with a cross (×) those represented in your community.

4. Name the three occupations discussed in this chapter which offer the best openings for boys; the three which offer the best prospects for girls. Give reasons for your selections, mentioning the human qualities needed in each occupation.

5. Is a frequent change in styles advantageous to tailors, dressmakers, and milliners? Explain.

THINGS TO DO

1. Bring to class pictures of tools and working implements no longer used. Be able to explain the purpose of each instrument and to name its modern successor.

2. Make a collection of poems and stories about spinning and weaving. Read to the class the poem or story you like best.

3. Two girls volunteer to show the class how to tell the difference between cotton cloth and woolen cloth. Two boys volunteer to show how a vase or bowl is made by hand and, if possible, fire the product.

4. Bring for the classroom bulletin-board pictures illustrating different kinds of buildings in your community and various sorts of material used in construction.

5. Organize into four committees to prepare a book entitled "Manufacturing and Building." Divide the booklet into four parts, giving to each part the title of one of the four sections of this chapter. Each committee be responsible for one section, putting into it a historical sketch of the occupations included, opportunities for such work in your community, the wages paid and the hours of labor required in the occupations in the industry, and such pictures and clippings as depict the products or methods of work in the enterprise. When the book is finished, show it to your principal.

6. Organize into committees to visit industries in your community, one committee visiting a foundry, another a shoe factory, a third a cotton mill, and so on. Before going, write out questions on which to secure information. Each committee report its experiences and findings to the class.

7. Bring to class specimens of paving material used in your vicinity and point out merits and defects of each.

8. Compare cotton, wool, silk, and flax under the microscope, and explain the importance of the differences you notice.

9. List the occupations discussed in this chapter which demand (1) the greatest physical strength, (2) the highest artistic ability, (3) the longest preparation, (4) the chief manipulative skill, (5) the closest accuracy, (6) the greatest courage, and (7) the most education.

10. Of the occupations described in this chapter, name the one which offers (1) the steadiest employment, (2) the highest financial reward, (3) the greatest variety in activity, (4) the most agreeable working conditions, (5) the chief opportunity for service.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "George Washington Goethals, Engineer," *Modern Great Americans*, 106–120.
2. "The Steeple-Climber," *Careers of Danger and Daring*, 3–39.
3. * "The Bridge Builder," *ibid.*, 173–208.
4. "Cyrus H. McCormick, Inventor of the Reaper," *Heroes of Progress*, 20–29.
5. "Elias Howe, Inventor of the Sewing Machine," *ibid.*, 47–53.
6. * "Thomas Alva Edison, Inventor," *ibid.*, 199–207.
7. "Quantity Automobiles," W. J. Showalter, *In Our Times*, 165–170.
8. "The Patent Office," *The American Government*, 201–212.
9. "The Bridge Builder and his Work," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, II, 505–509.
10. * "The Engineer — Master Builder of Civilization," *ibid.*, III, 1149–1150.
11. "Inventions that have Changed the World," *ibid.*, IV, 1795–1802.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. *The Story of Iron and Steel*, by J. Russell Smith. Appleton.
2. *The Boys' Own Book of Great Inventions*, by Floyd L. Darrow. Macmillan.
3. * *Stories of Useful Inventions*, by S. E. Forman. Century.
4. *Engineering as a Vocation*, by Ernest M. Cullough. Williams.
5. * *Makers of Many Things*, by Eva M. Tappan. Houghton.
6. *The Romance of Steel*, by Herbert N. Casson. Barnes.
7. *Masters of Science and Invention*, by Floyd L. Darrow. Harcourt.
8. *Leading American Inventions*, by George Iles. Holt.
9. * *The Boys' Life of Edison*, by William H. Meadowcraft. Harper.
10. *How it is Made*, by Archibald Williams. Nelson.
11. * *The Romance of Modern Engineering*, by Archibald Williams. Seeley.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *Donkey John of the Toy Valley*, by Margaret W. Morley. McClurg.
2. * *The Wood Carver of 'Lympus*, by Mary E. Waller. Little.
3. *Toni, the Little Wood Carver*, by Johanna Spyri. Crowell.
4. *In the Days of the Guild*, by L. Lamfrey. Stokes.
5. *Brunel's Tower*, by Eden Phillpotts. Macmillan.
6. *Old Delabole*, by Eden Phillpotts. Macmillan.
7. *The Rapids*, by Alan Sullivan. Appleton.
8. * *The Story of Ab*, by Stanley Waterloo. Doubleday.

CHAPTER XXVIII

SHIPPING AND TRANSPORTING

Commerce and industry are the best mines of a nation. — GEORGE WASHINGTON

SECTION I. MANAGING SHIPMENTS

Importance of transportation. Transportation plays a part in practically everything we use. After crops are raised or goods are manufactured they must be carried to the people who need them. You will have difficulty in naming a single article in your home or school which did not require the labors of many persons to bring it to its present location. If all means of transporting goods were destroyed, every mill, factory, and store in the country would be forced to close within a month. Transportation is one of the basic activities of modern life.

Traffic-manager. The most important occupation in transportation, from the standpoint of a large manufacturer or dealer, is that of the traffic-manager. On him the success of the business often depends. It is his duty to plan the best way to ship goods to and from the factory or the establishment. He must keep the cost of transportation as low as possible and must also see that materials are on hand when needed. In order to decide whether goods should be shipped by rail or water, by freight or express, by parcel post or air mail, he must know both the exact time when the goods are wanted and the rates, speed, and regulations of the various carriers.

Shipment by water is cheaper than by rail, but water transportation is slower. Shipment by freight is less expensive than by express, but express service is more rapid and

the charges include cartage. Again, railroads and steamship lines charge different rates for different kinds of goods, different sorts of packages, and different ways of shipment. With all such facts a traffic-manager must be familiar so as to be able to take advantage of the lower freight rates when there is no need for haste. He also requires such information in order to ship goods in the most economical form and manner.

From capable traffic management large savings result. Several years ago a young man serving as a shipping clerk in a Michigan factory worked out a plan which he believed would greatly reduce shipping expenses. He mentioned the matter to those in authority, but his proposal to introduce a traffic department was rejected. Hereupon he declared that he would save the factory $6000 a month if given full charge of shipments; that if he failed to make good his promise, he would not ask a cent for his efforts. He proposed that, if successful, he be made traffic-manager at a salary of $6000 a year. His challenge was accepted and he was directed to go ahead, but to waste no money.

His first act was to see the superintendent of the factory and suggest that a large band saw and frame, which was being manufactured in a single piece, be cast in several parts so that shipment might be made in a box car instead of on a flat car, as heretofore. The change, he pointed out, would greatly reduce freight charges, since a "part load" could be sent by box car whereas, even in shipping a single saw, an entire car must be paid for if the flat car were used. The superintendent adopted the suggestion, the saw was made in a number of parts, and on a single shipment of forty saws the company saved $6125 in freight. Needless to say, the young man was at once appointed traffic-manager at the salary he proposed.[1]

In addition to planning shipments, a traffic-manager must supervise the packing of goods in order to prevent

[1] C. H. Ernst, *What shall I Be?* 175–176.

breakage in transportation. He must provide for the proper marking of parcels to avoid delays in transportation. He must be familiar with the laws regulating commerce and must know how to remedy unfair charges and unjust treatment. He must be able to select advantageous sites for branches of an industry and for new factories.

During late years traffic experts have been in demand by manufacturers' associations, chambers of commerce, and merchants' organizations. When so employed, they advise the members concerning the shipping laws, the adjustment of claims, classification of freight, and the expansion of markets.

Qualifications and training for traffic-managers. A person who wishes to become a traffic-manager must have imagination, originality, and a good memory. He must have capacity for taking pains with details as well as with larger aspects of traffic management. He must be able to get along with people, for much of his success depends on his relations with customers and with the purchasing and sales departments of the company for which he works.

To succeed as traffic-manager, a person should have a wide grasp of business practices. He must be a capable accountant and an expert bookkeeper. He should have a practical acquaintance with methods of packing and crating goods such as can best be obtained in the shipping departments of large concerns and in the freight offices of transportation companies. To become a traffic-manager, one needs a high-school education, and the chances of success are greatly improved by a mastery of the courses in traffic management given in most universities as well as in some colleges and evening schools.

Work in shipping departments. Variations exist, of course, in the ways in which different concerns handle incoming and outgoing materials, equipment, and merchandise. In general, shipments come first to receiving clerks, who open the boxes or containers; then, to checkers, who compare the contents with the invoice or bill of lading; next, to

storeroom or trucking clerks, who deliver the goods to the departments where they are needed; and finally, in some instances, to claim clerks, who take care of claims for losses and damages. The operations named are all under a chief clerk who is responsible to the traffic-manager.

Outgoing materials follow a similar routine. Classification clerks decide the freight classification of shipments,

SHIPPING CLERKS

Greater care in wrapping and handling shipments would reduce losses in transportation hundreds of thousands of dollars a year.

rate clerks find the shipping rates, routing clerks make out the routes, shipping clerks prepare the invoices, packing clerks see that goods are packed properly, and marking clerks address the shipments. The workers in charge of outgoing goods carry on their tasks under the direction of a chief clerk. In small concerns one or two persons do all the work connected with incoming and outgoing shipments.

The hauling of goods to or from the factory and the

shipping yards is usually done in wagons or motor trucks, many concerns having their own trucks and drivers to handle short deliveries. Frequently, however, such transportation is provided by the express company, railroad company, or steamship company.

Opportunities and requirements in shipping departments. The main qualifications for a shipping clerk are accuracy, carefulness, and speed. Errors in shipments are expensive in both time and money, and, in addition, frequently cause dissatisfied customers and lead to a loss of trade. The careless opening of containers or improper methods of packing goods usually result in breakage and waste. Mistakes in checking or invoicing shipments and in classifying or routing goods are vexatious and costly to all concerned.

A clerk in a shipping department has a good opportunity to learn the merchandise or products of the company which employs him. If energetic and painstaking, he may become chief clerk, traveling salesman, or may even rise to the position of traffic-manager. A worker in a shipping department needs at least a common-school education, and his chances for promotion are greatly improved if he is a graduate of high school or college.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Explain the connection between this chapter and Chapter XXVII.

2. List in order all transportation agencies which probably played a part in bringing this book to you; the volume was published in Cambridge, Massachusetts.

3. How are incoming and outgoing goods handled at your nearest grocery store? How are they delivered at your home? Does the grocer check his orders? Does your mother check her purchases? Does the delivery man need to route his parcels? Explain.

4. List all means of transportation in your community. Put a cross (×) before the three most important.

5. Describe the methods of transportation used *within* a manufacturing plant or a large store in your community. How do the internal transportation arrangements affect the success of the concern?

6. *Problems for volunteers:* Why do railroads charge different rates for different kinds of shipments? Give examples. Should all parcels of equal weight traveling equal distances pay the same freight? Explain.

Section II. Running Trains

Railroad workers. Of the three million people engaged in transportation in the United States, more than one third work on steam railroads; most of the others are employed on street railroads or in water transportation.

Railway workers vary widely, but in general they fall into five large groups, as follows: first, builders and maintainers of the roadway; second, constructors and repairers of locomotives and cars; third, movers of trains; fourth, handlers of traffic; and fifth, keepers of accounts and records. Railroads also employ many people to look after supplies, pensions, insurance, advertising, and legal matters.

Most of the occupations in railroading are found also in other industries and will require little attention here. For instance, the planning and building of the roads are the work of surveyors, civil engineers, contractors, mechanics, and unskilled laborers. The construction of locomotives and cars is a manufacturing enterprise. The keeping of accounts, the handling of correspondence, and the management of legal affairs are office occupations or belong to the professions, and will be treated later. This section, therefore, will be confined in large part to the occupations which are peculiar to railroading.

Maintaining the roadway. Once a road is built, its repair and upkeep are in charge of section gangs, each composed of several men working under a section foreman. Section men are at first unskilled workers. They replace decayed

ties, repair culverts, raise sunken rails to the proper level, remove grass and weeds from the roadbed, fill in washouts, clear switches of ice and snow, clean ditches, and in general keep the tracks in their section (usually from two to ten miles) in good condition. On many lines trackwalkers (one to each section) patrol the road, making minor repairs and stopping trains with flag or lantern whenever they find a dangerous condition such as a landslide, washout, or broken bridge. By industry and alertness a section hand may become a foreman and may even rise to the position of roadmaster or division superintendent.

LAYING A RAILROAD TRACK

On the accuracy and thoroughness with which these men do their work depends the safety of both passengers and freight.

In addition to the maintenance work of the section gangs, crews of men are employed also to repair bridges, alter tracks, install switches, and build stations, water tanks, and signal towers. For the most part such workers are carpenters, masons, and mechanics, and require for their tasks the qualities and training explained previously (see pages 587, 593). About one fourth of all men employed by the railroads are occupied in keeping the line in order.

Caring for locomotives and cars. Locomotives and cars are generally built by manufacturers, the work involved being that described in the preceding chapter; occasionally they are made in railroad shops. The production of the rolling

stock, as locomotives and cars are called, is therefore often outside regular railroad work. The upkeep of such equipment, however, like the maintenance of the line, falls with few exceptions upon railway employees.

Railroad shops, in which the trains are put into good running order, are really large machine shops. At the head of the shop is a master mechanic. Under him are machinists, electricians, boiler-makers, air-brake men, and pipefitters, who repair defects in wheels, couplers, valves, pistons, and air brakes. They are assisted by many helpers who remove fire and ashes from engines, wash out boilers, pack lubrication boxes, fill grease cups and sand boxes, and clean and polish locomotives until they shine like new. Helpers always work under a foreman; as they gain experience they often become shop mechanics, locomotive firemen, or brakemen.

Moving the trains. The most fascinating work on the railroad is the handling of the giant engines, the swift passenger trains, and the long freight trains. This requires the combined efforts of yardmen, dispatchers, telegraphers, signalmen, engineers, firemen, conductors, and brakemen. The work of such men, especially the last four, is the most distinctive in the railroad industry.

Yardmen. On the yardmen falls the responsibility of making up the trains. They sort the cars, assemble them into trains, switch them to outbound tracks, and keep the yards clear for incoming traffic. Most of the labor in the yards is performed by switchmen and brakemen, working under the direction of the yardmaster.

Train crew. When ready for the road, a train is placed in charge of a crew which takes it to the next division point, a distance which is ordinarily half a day's run. The train crew as a rule consists of an engineer and fireman, in charge of the engine, and a conductor and brakeman, who look after the cars and, as the case may be, the passengers or the freight.

The engineer's duty is to drive the locomotive, observing its running condition, watching the track, keeping a sharp lookout for signals, and applying the air brakes when necessary. An engineer must have a thorough knowledge of the different types of locomotives and must be able to make all ordinary repairs. He must be familiar with signal rules and railway regulations. The safety of the train depends on his soundness of judgment, his steadiness of nerve, and the keenness of his vision. Only persons with good judgment, quick, alert minds, keen eyesight, iron nerves, physical strength, and endurance are qualified for an engineer's work.

Ewing Galloway

THE YARDMAN

Box cars go screeching up or down the tracks of the railroad yard in obedience to this man's signals. He buckles the "empties" together and makes up trains. His gestures are as much a part of railroading as the brakeman's swinging lantern or the far-off whistle of a locomotive.

The main task of the locomotive fireman is to fire the engine and to keep up a full head of steam. A fireman needs to have a strong back, strong legs, and strong arms, for shoveling coal into an engine is a severe physical task. He must understand locomotive furnaces, must be familiar with the most effective methods of fire-building, and must have a thorough knowledge of signals, safety valves, pressure gauges, and air-brake systems. Success as fireman leads to promotion to the post of engineer.

The conductor has the main responsibility for the train. To him come all train orders. If in charge of a freight train, he directs the picking up and dropping of cars, sees to the loading and unloading of shipments, and has possession of

all waybills for the freight on his train. The conductor in charge of a passenger train collects tickets and fares and is in command of the entire train crew. He must be familiar with signals, schedules, and transportation regulations. He must be tactful and pleasant in his relations with travelers and shippers.

Brakemen on freight trains help the conductor to manage the freight and, on passenger trains, assist the conductor in collecting tickets and dealing with travelers. The brakemen also set switches, look after the coupling of cars, and act as flagmen when the train stops on a through track.

THE MAN IN THE ENGINE CAB

Rushing through the dark night, eyes ahead, hand on the throttle, his locomotive streaming smoke, the railway engineer kindles the imagination. Mystery, motion, and noise throw a wonderful glamour over his throne in the cab.

In railway-operating, department promotions are generally from the position of yardman to that of brakeman on a freight train; then, to brakeman on a passenger train; next, to freight conductor; and finally, to passenger conductor. Or one may rise from a job in the yards to a position as fireman on a freight train; next, to fireman on a passenger train; then, to engineer on a freight train; and at last, to engineer on a passenger train.

Dispatchers and signalmen. The third important class of workers playing a direct part in the moving of trains includes signalmen, towermen, telegraphers, and dispatchers. The train-dispatcher, who is responsible for the movement

of all trains over his division, must know at all times the location of every train under his supervision. Telegraphers send out the train-dispatcher's orders governing the movement of trains to conductors, engineers, station agents, and signalmen.

In recent years the telephone has largely displaced the telegraph in the case of local orders. Wrecks are avoided in large part by block signals located every few thousand yards along the roadbed. Sometimes the signals are operated by hand by signalmen, sometimes by an interlocking machine in the tower, but on up-to-date roads they are usually operated by electricity in what is known as the automatic block-signal system, which prevents trains from running past a stop signal. Switches in railroad yards are generally controlled from signal towers through the use of an interlocking machine which makes collisions impossible.

A TRAIN-DISPATCHER

This man sends out all orders regulating the movement of trains on his division of the line.

Train-dispatchers, telegraphers, and signalmen must have keen vision and clear perception of colors. They must be men of sound judgment and quick decision, absolutely accurate and dependable, for on them rest the lives of travelers and the safety of property.

Handling traffic. The handling of baggage and freight and the providing of facilities for the comfort and convenience of patrons is the last aspect of railroad work to be considered here. To meet such needs, the railroads have stations where shipments may be made and goods received, and where passengers may secure tickets and wait for trains.

In small towns the agent is in charge of both passenger and freight service, looks after baggage, and serves as telegrapher. In large communities separate stations for freight and passenger service are customary. There the station masters are aided by assistants who sell tickets, take care of baggage, handle freight, make out waybills, and keep records. Ticket offices in large cities are usually in buildings in the business district as well as in the passenger stations. Promotions in the handling of traffic are generally from small towns to larger towns and, occasionally, to district passenger agencies or to the management of traffic departments.

Advantages and disadvantages. Few industries offer as wide a variety of occupations as the railroad. It provides work indoors and outdoors, skilled and unskilled, mechanical and clerical, executive, financial, and professional. Probably no other industry offers so many opportunities to rise from the ranks, most of the leading positions in railway companies being filled by men who began as apprentices in the yards or as clerks in the offices. In the railroad business promotion generally comes to employees who have been longest in the service.

The chief disadvantage in the operating side of railroading is the danger to life and limb which the work involves. Many insurance companies will not issue policies to switchmen, brakemen, firemen, engineers, and conductors, and the companies that will do so charge higher rates. In late years the risks involved in railroading have been lessened by the increased use of safety devices. Moreover, the brotherhoods of railway workers and a number of railway companies provide insurance facilities and pension systems.

A disadvantage which sometimes arises in the railroad industry is "burial" as a clerk in the accounting, or financial, department. But the danger is equally great in other large enterprises. Viewed as a whole, we may say that the railroad business probably offers as attractive openings as any industry in our country.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. List the occupations described in Chapter XXVII which play a part in the railroad industry.

2. Explain this statement: "The only distinctive types of employment on the railroad are the positions of locomotive engineers, firemen, conductors, and brakemen."

3. Mention the chief differences in the work of a brakeman on a freight train and on a passenger train. Why is the latter position regarded as a promotion?

4. Ask a locomotive engineer how long a person must generally serve as a fireman before he may expect to become an engineer. Ask a conductor the age limits for service and how long one must serve as brakeman before he may become conductor.

5. Which kinds of railway work are best suited to women? Which are unsuited? Give reasons.

6. *For a volunteer:* Find the division terminals of the railroads entering your town or city.

SECTION III. SAILING SHIPS

Transportation by water. Transportation by water, we have seen, is cheaper but slower than transportation by land. On this account travelers who are in no hurry and shippers to whom speed is of little importance prefer water transportation to land transportation when such is possible. As a result, an extensive shipping industry has developed on our rivers, canals, lakes, and along our coasts. In addition, our commerce with other lands has grown to vast proportions, exceeding in a recent year eight billion dollars.

Aside from the traffic on such ship canals as Cape Cod, Saline Neches Waterway, New Orleans Industrial, and Sault Ste. Marie, canal transportation in our country is limited largely to the Erie Canal. Much more important are the shipments on the Great Lakes, the St. Lawrence,

the Mississippi, the Hudson, the Ohio, and along the coasts of the Atlantic, the Pacific, and the Gulf of Mexico. Here hundreds of vessels and thousands of men are occupied in transporting both passengers and freight. A large part of our trade with other countries is carried on in foreign vessels.

Work in water transportation. Most of the work in water transportation is like that found in other industries. Steamship lines are organized and managed in much the same

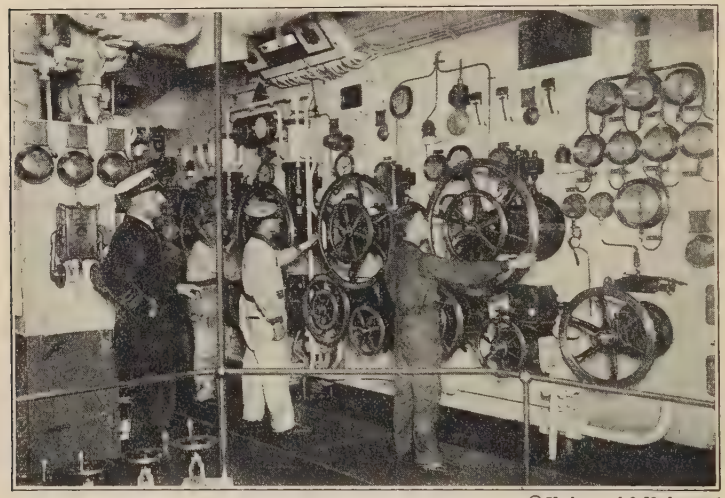
ONE OF THE BIGGEST SHIPS ON THE ATLANTIC

The lure of the sea and of strange lands surrounds an ocean-going steamer. This ship, the S.S. *Berengaria*, which is as long as a city block, employs hundreds of men.

way as railroads. The office work resembles office work elsewhere. Although the technical problems entering into naval architecture differ somewhat from those found in the planning of skyscrapers, the designing of ships is in large measure a similar task, requires similar qualities, and with some variations calls for similar preparation, while the actual work of constructing vessels is much like that involved in erecting buildings and bridges.

In like manner, the handling of cargoes resembles the loading and unloading of freight in land transportation.

On passenger vessels the duties of stewards, cooks, and waiters are similar to the duties of corresponding workers in hotels and restaurants. The occupation of the wireless operator on water differs in no important respect from the task of the radio operator on land. Even the running and firing of the ship's engines corresponds to the work



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CONTROLLING A LARGE LINER

This engine control board with its wheels and gauges controls the S. S. *Leviathan*, one of the largest passenger ships afloat.

of engineers and firemen in mills and factories. In most respects, then, the occupations connected with water transportation are like the occupations described in the preceding chapter and do not require consideration here.

Specific occupations. But water transportation nevertheless offers occupations which to a greater or less degree are distinctive. To navigate a ship requires seamen, engineers, stokers, mates, and a captain. In addition, navigation cannot be carried on without the aid of pilots, harbor masters, ship inspectors, coast guards, and lighthouse-

keepers. Of the occupations named, the most distinctive are those that center in the navigation of the ship; the rest of the section will be devoted to them.

Captain. General charge of a ship is in the hands of the captain, who is responsible for the navigation of the vessel as well as for the management of its various departments. In time of disaster he provides for the safety of all on board and, by tradition, must be the last to leave the ship.

MORE WORK FOR THE SAILORS

Like a ghost ship, this steamer put into Boston Harbor one winter day. High seas and storms had completely shrouded her in ice.

A sea captain needs keen eyesight, good hearing, and correct color sense. He must be familiar with the laws that govern navigation. It is especially important that he be able to handle men. To become a captain, a person must have had at least one year's experience as chief mate, and in addition must pass a rigorous examination on navigation and seamanship by the United States Steamboat-Inspection Service.

Mates. The captain is assisted in his work by a number of mates, or officers. The first mate, in the absence of the captain, commands the ship; he also directs the loading and unloading of the cargo, is in charge of equipment and supplies, conducts fire and lifeboat drills, and is responsible for the condition of the lifeboats and fire-fighting equipment.

The second, third, and fourth mates usually have charge

of the ship at certain watches, or periods, of the day. They direct and supervise the work of the crew and assist in navigation. They need the same physical qualifications as the captain, must have had practical experience in seamanship, and must pass examinations by the United States Steamboat-Inspection Service.

Seamen. The detailed and routine work in the deck service of a ship is performed by seamen. They handle the rigging and appliances, mop the decks, take the soundings to find the depth of the water, steer the vessel, set and reef the sails (in sailing craft), and handle the lifeboats in times of emergency.

Able seamen must have physical strength and endurance, must be able to use saws, hammers, and chisels, and must know how to handle a lifeboat. To secure employment as an able seaman, an applicant must secure a certificate of seamanship from the United States Steamboat-Inspection Service. To obtain the document, a man must be physically fit and must have had three years' experience in deck service. If an applicant is physically fit, but has had only one year of experience, he may secure a certificate by passing an examination on seamanship. Able seamen are assisted in their tasks by ordinary seamen, or deck boys, who work in somewhat the same capacity as apprentices learning a trade and may make similar advancement in wages and position.

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QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Does your community have facilities for water transportation? If not, name the nearest point from which water shipments are made, mentioning the chief kinds of freight carried by water.

2. Which is more profitable to a steamship line, passenger traffic or freight traffic? Give reasons.

3. Compare the occupations that play a direct part in navigating a ship with those that enter directly into running a train. If possible, compare wages in the corresponding lines of work.

4. Why should the captain be the last person to leave the ship in case of disaster? If possible, tell a story illustrating the heroism of sea captains.

5. Of the various kinds of work in water transportation, which appeals most to you? Why?

6. *For volunteers:* Describe as to kind and extent the traffic on one of the canals or rivers mentioned on pages 620–621, or on one of the Great Lakes, or along the seacoast.

SECTION IV. OPERATING STREET CARS AND MOTOR VEHICLES

Extent and importance. Almost one million workers are needed to run our street cars, interurban lines, taxicabs, and motor busses. Our street railways, if placed end to end, would belt the world twice. Although electric cars handle very little freight, the number of passengers they carry is ten times that of the steam railways. Motor transportation, too, is extensive, the operation of taxicabs, trucks, and autobusses requiring the services of three hundred thousand drivers.

From the foregoing figures it is apparent that, if you are attracted to transportation as an occupation, you are not limited to the opportunities offered by steam railways and steamship lines. You may, if you prefer, choose work connected with electric railroading or motor transportation.

Kinds of work. The organization and management of electric railways and motor-bus lines resemble similar activities on steam railways. In each instance office work and executive positions differ only in matters of detail. Electric as well as steam railways employ civil engineers, machinists, inspectors, dispatchers, switchmen, section men, ticket agents, conductors, and gatemen, similar preparation being required and promotion following much the same route. The distinctive kinds of work in such transportation are those connected directly with the operation

of vehicles driven by electricity or gasoline; of these the most important are the positions of motormen, chauffeurs, and drivers of motor trucks and autobusses.

Motorman. The motorman on a surface, elevated, or subway line operates the driving and controlling apparatus of the car or train. His work requires physical strength, keen eyesight, good hearing, steady nerves, an even temper, poise, and self-control. He must be an accurate judge of speed and distance, and must know all signals and understand traffic regulations.

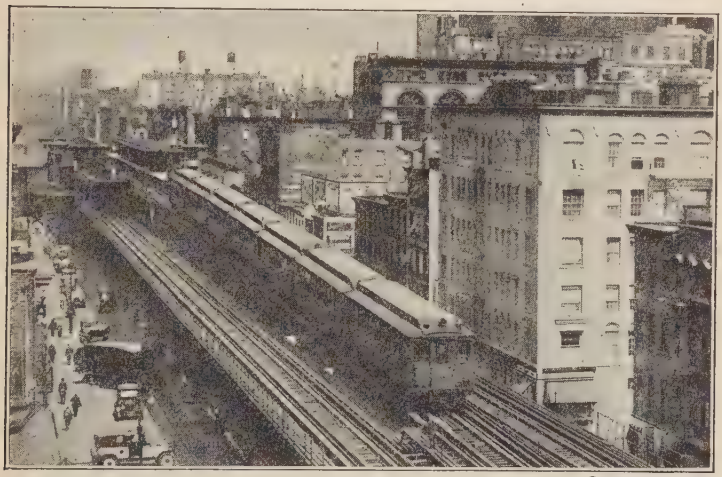
THE MOTORMAN

Aside from motor cars, the street car is the most familiar method of transportation. Usually a motorman and a conductor have charge of the car, but on some lines the motorman performs the duties of both.

To become a motorman on an elevated or subway train, one must usually serve first as guard and then as switchman. An applicant who has had the preliminary experience required must then pass a severe physical test. He is then trained by a skilled motor instructor and finally examined by officers of the road; if found competent, he receives employment when a vacancy occurs.

Requirements for a position as motorman on a surface car are limited to physical fitness, good moral character, and a common-school education. Instruction is obtained as a rule by riding for a time with an experienced motorman. After several days the learner is allowed to drive the

car in residence districts, then on downtown streets during quiet hours, and finally in the business section during rush periods. Within a few weeks training is completed and the new motorman is put in charge of a car. Street-railway companies in some cities have schools for training



© Ewing Galloway

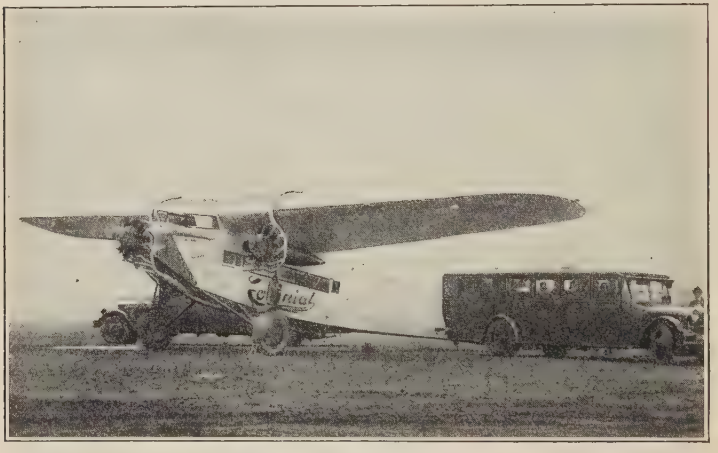
AN ELEVATED TRAIN

In some cities where traffic has outgrown the surface lines, car tracks have been put underground in a subway, or overhead on an elevated structure, as you see here. Notice the station in the background.

inexperienced men. A motorman or a conductor on an electric railway generally has regular work, but has little opportunity for advancement.

Chauffeur and autobus-driver. Chauffeurs and taxicab-drivers should understand the construction of gasoline engines and be able to make ordinary repairs and adjustments. They must be level-headed, unwilling to take chances, resourceful, cool in emergencies, careful and alert in driving through crowded streets. In addition to their work as drivers and as caretakers of automobiles, chauffeurs in private families must frequently look after the grounds, attend to the garden, and make minor repairs about the premises.

Drivers of trucks and autobusses need the same physical qualities and mechanical abilities required by chauffeurs. In addition, drivers of one-man autobusses must be able to get along with people and must be careful and accurate in collecting fares and keeping accounts. After working a few years as chauffeur or driver for others, a young man may save enough money to buy a taxicab, autobus, or truck, and



AIRPLANE AND MOTOR BUS

The motor bus is now a familiar sight on all highways, and airplane passenger service between cities is becoming more and more common. This airplane and bus are coöperating in carrying travelers from Boston to New York.

then go into business for himself. Where this can be done, the occupation of chauffeur or driver offers a better future than is possible, as a rule, in working for someone else.

Summary. In the United States one worker out of every fourteen is engaged in transportation. Some are occupied in managing shipments, some in running trains, and some in navigating ships, piloting airplanes, or operating street cars or motor vehicles. Many occupations in the transportation business closely resemble occupations in other lines of work. Of those which may be considered distinctive,

the most important are the traffic-manager and his assistants, the locomotive engineer, fireman, conductor, and brakeman, the yardman, switchman, and dispatcher, the ship captain, mates, and seamen, and the motorman, chauffeur, and driver of truck or autobus.

All occupations in transportation require accuracy and attention to detail, for mistakes are likely to cause loss of life and destruction of property. Most transportation occupations are learned on the job. Promotion, especially in the railroad business, comes usually from the ranks, the higher and more responsible positions often requiring both physical and mental examinations.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Which occupation in the transportation business offers the most attractive future? Why? Which is the best opening for a high-school graduate? Give reasons.

2. What bus lines enter your community? Find the qualifications, training, and pay of the drivers. Why are requirements for motormen on elevated, subway, or interurban lines more exacting than requirements for motormen on surface cars?

3. Why do certain occupations in transportation have futures and others have no futures? Explain with examples.

4. Why is it easier as a rule to go into business for yourself with a taxicab or an autobus in a small city than in a metropolis? Find what it would cost to buy and operate a taxicab or autobus in your community.

THINGS TO DO

1. List the occupations that are peculiar to transportation, putting a cross before the three that offer employment to the most people, and a "W" before those open to women.

2. If you have street cars in your community, make a class visit to the car barns and general offices. Prepare a list of questions to ask before making the trip.

3. List occupations in transportation in your community. Find (1) which is the easiest to enter, (2) which receives the highest pay, and (3) which has the greatest future.

4. Interview an acquaintance who is engaged in transportation. Find out (1) how he came to take up his present work, (2) what preparation he had for the job, (3) what his main daily activities are, (4) what features of the work he likes and what ones he dislikes, and (5) whether he would advise you to enter the occupation and the reasons for his opinion. Make notes under these five heads and exchange experiences in class.

5. The next time you take a ride on a street car or an autobus keep a record of everything the conductor and the motorman or driver do. From your notes draw conclusions concerning the qualifications and training needed in the occupations you observed.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "The Pilot," *Careers of Danger and Daring*, 130–172.
2. * "The Locomotive Engineer," *ibid.*, 377–419.
3. "An Underground City in New York," Anonymous, *In Our Times*, 80–83.
4. * "Steamboating on the Mississippi," T. Oakley, *ibid.*, 272–277.
5. "Shipping and Transporting," *Readings in Community Life*, Part V, section 4.
6. "Unexpected Developments," P. B. Kyne, *The Worker and his Work*, 278–291.

II. Home Readings

1. *The Sailor*, by T. Jenks. McClurg.
2. * *Travelers and Traveling*, by Eva M. Tappan. Houghton.
3. *The Story of the Railroad*, by Cy Warman. Appleton.
4. *The Great Quest*, by Charles B. Hawes. Little.
5. * *Redburn: His First Voyage*, by Herman Melville. Wells.
6. *Mr. Midshipman Easy*, by Captain Frederick Marryat. Putnam.
7. * *Held for Orders*, by Frank H. Spearman. Scribner.
8. *Out of Gloucester*, by James B. Connolly. Scribner.
9. *Christopher Hibbault, Roadmaker*, by Marguerite Bryant. Duffield.
10. *Running Free*, by James B. Connolly. Scribner.
11. *The Bunker House*, by Frederick S. Greene. Dodd.
12. * *Cap'n Eri*, by Joseph Lincoln. Appleton.
13. *Salt Water Ballads*, by John Masefield. Macmillan.
14. * *Stories of Railroad Life*, by Frank H. Spearman. Scribner.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE STORE, THE BANK, AND THE OFFICE

Business, in order to have the right to succeed, must be of real service to the community. — WILLIAM FILENE

SECTION I. THE STORE

Services of stores. Every boy and girl has at some time or other gone to a grocery store to buy sugar, or to a meat shop to get a steak, or to a furnishing store to purchase a tie, a suit, or a hat. With rare exceptions, everything we eat, wear, or own comes through some sort of mercantile establishment. Community life without stores is hard to imagine.

Buying and selling enter into all kinds of industry and business. Before the grocer can sell flour, breakfast food, and canned goods, he must buy supplies from the jobber, or wholesaler; he, in turn, must secure them from the manufacturer, who must purchase them from original producers. And the same is true of the druggist, the milliner, and the dealer in shoes. By providing convenient places in which dependable goods can be secured at a fair price, merchants serve us all.

Kinds of stores. The main kinds of retail establishments are neighborhood stores, chain stores, mail-order houses, and department stores. Familiar examples of neighborhood stores are meat shops, shoe stores, drug stores, grocery stores, millinery shops, and specialty shops. Such stores usually handle only one line of goods, such as shoes or hats, or a number of related lines, such as foodstuffs or wearing apparel.

Chain stores, too, deal generally in only one kind of goods. Unlike a neighborhood store, however, they are under a single management. One of the well-known chain establishments operates 10,000 retail grocery stores, employs more than 65,000 men and women, and does over $300,000,000 worth of business a year.

A department store is in a sense a store composed of stores, or departments, each department specializing in a single line of goods. Such an establishment, aiming to satisfy the wants of all comers, often contains as many as a hundred separate departments, each in charge of its own manager, buyers, and sales force, but all comprising a single organization under a common management. For example, one of Chicago's large department stores carries a million different articles in stock, employs in its retail trade more than twelve thousand men and women, and occupies a building containing over fifty acres of floor space.

Mail-order houses deal with their customers almost entirely through the mails. If you have ever gone through the catalogue of a large mail-order house, you know that they handle practically everything under the sun from clothespins and marbles to automobiles and threshing-machines. Unlike the neighborhood store, the chain store, and the department store, a mail-order house does not as a rule sell goods over the counter.

Although the four kinds of stores described above differ from one another in many ways, the occupations they offer are much alike. To the foregoing statement mail-order houses form a partial exception. They have no position like that of the sales person in an ordinary store; instead, they require workers not needed in other mercantile establishments to handle the thousands and thousands of letters which they receive and send every day.

The nature of merchandising and the occupations it offers may be understood best, perhaps, by examining the activities usually found in a department store. But it must

be remembered that work which is divided into a number of different occupations in a big establishment is often done by a single individual in a smaller concern.

Organization of department stores. In most large department stores the work falls under five main divisions: first, finance, accounts, and records; second, the purchase of goods; third, publicity and advertising; fourth, the service of customers; fifth, personnel management. All these

RECORDING DEPARTMENT

The girls who are employed in this department of a large mail-order house must record on index cards all orders received during the year and must then file the cards so that they can be found quickly. What qualities are needed by a person engaged in such work?

divisions are under the control and oversight of the general manager of the store who unifies their activities and determines the general policy of the establishment as a whole. So varied are the occupations in a big department store that opportunities exist for people of all kinds of ability, interests, and training.

The division of finance and accounts is responsible for all records and reports connected with the business. It secures the funds needed to carry on the store, pays all bills, compiles statistics on purchases and sales, keeps all accounts,

and looks after most of the correspondence. It includes such employees as stenographers, bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers, and auditors; with allowance for differences in detail, similar work is required in all lines of business. For this reason consideration of the occupations in the division of finance, accounts, and records will be deferred to the second and third sections of the chapter, and the present section will be confined to the occupations which are distinctive of merchandising.

Purchase of goods. Before a merchant can sell goods he must buy them. In a large department store the purchase and sale of the stock are in charge of a merchandise-manager who is aided by various assistants and buyers. Assistant merchandise-managers supervise groups of related departments, while each department as a rule also has its own buyer and a number of assistant buyers.

Nothing in the mercantile business is more important than the buying of the stock, for "merchandise well bought is half sold." The buyer must purchase "the right merchandise, at the right time, at the right price, and in the right quantities." He must know the tastes of the public, must anticipate demands, must be acquainted with the best sources from which to buy, must understand the raw materials and the manufacturing processes that enter into his purchases, must price goods so as to attract customers, and must help publicity workers prepare displays and advertisements.

The duties of buyers are therefore of two main kinds: they must select the goods which are to be sold; they must assist the sales force to dispose of the goods. Their work in the market takes them to all parts of the country and even to Europe and other lands. Their tasks in the store are extremely varied. One buyer describes her duties as follows:[1]

The work in the store begins the minute one steps into the department in the morning and runs under pressure all day. The

[1] *Prince Alumnæ News*, January, 1924.

A DEPARTMENT STORE

Modern department stores are built for beauty as well as for convenience. As a rule the various floors are divided into several departments, each devoted to a single line of merchandise.

sample rooms are calling; there is a salesman who cannot wait; the "advertising" must have plans for the week at once; a foreign shipment has just been received and is greatly needed in the department; the decorating department is waiting for a window to be selected; a slow-selling list is out and must be gone through piece by piece; the division-manager would "like to see you at once"; and so on through a long list of duties. Behind each request someone is waiting, and the progress or delay of that person depends on the buyer's immediate attention.

A buyer has heavy demands made upon him. He must know the store; he must understand the market; he must be willing to work hard with little attention to hours; and he must be energetic, patient, coöperative, intelligent, and alert. Positions as buyers are open to women as well as men. Promotion as a rule comes from the ranks, the line of advance being generally from the sales force or the stock room. Salaries of buyers range from $5000 or $10,000 a year to $20,000 or $25,000 or even higher.

Publicity and advertising. No store can succeed if it cannot sell merchandise. It must attract favorable attention to the goods it offers for sale to induce the public to make purchases. To bring about such results is the task of the publicity, or sales-promotion, force.

The sales-promotion force falls into two divisions: the decorating department and the advertising department. The workers in the decorating department arrange merchandise in the windows so as to attract the attention of passers-by, prepare display cards and signs to stimulate sales, and plan the inside of the store — its furnishings and decorative scheme — so as to please the customers. The advertising department provides advertisements for the newspapers and magazines; posters and display cards for street cars and busses; circulars, bulletins, and pamphlets for distribution through the mails.

Sales promotion demands originality, enthusiasm, imagination, and resourcefulness. Window-trimmers and interior-

display men must have a feeling for space, balance, and line. They must understand lighting effects, color combinations, and the principles that govern the artistic arrangement of merchandise. Many window displays fail to attract customers because the windows are overcrowded or because articles are not arranged in pleasing groups.

WINDOW DISPLAY

An attractive window display draws the attention of passers-by to the goods offered for sale. Special training can be had in artistic window arrangement, and the work offers endless variety with unusual opportunities for advancement.

To write effective advertisements requires a mastery of terse, forceful English, originality in expression, acquaintance with the types used in printing, and an understanding of what will appeal to the public. He who would go in for advertising must be able to think in pictures; he must have sympathy, breadth of view, and an understanding of human nature; he must have a thorough knowledge of the

goods to be sold and the qualities which make them different from other goods of the same general character. This was well understood by the advertising expert who was consulted by a large fruit-grower in California with a view to suggesting methods for increasing sales.

"What makes your products more desirable than those of your competitors?" inquired the expert. "Why," answered the president, after a moment's thought, "we pick our fruit ripe." "Picked ripe! That's it!" shouted the advertising man. "That's the slogan. Put 'Picked Ripe' on every can and case of your goods. That will bring the business."[1]

Experience on a newspaper, on a sales force, or in the stock room is almost essential for a person who desires to engage in advertising. Higher education is a necessity for one who wishes to become an advertising manager. Advertising work is open to both men and women. Beginning copy-writers and commercial artists are usually paid from $15 to $20 a week; advertising managers receive from $10,000 to $20,000 or more a year.

Service to customers. In a large department store the service to customers involves two main groups of workers: first, the sales staff, whose business it is to display and sell goods; second, the workers who look after the comfort and convenience of customers in rest rooms, elevators, and the various departments. The first group comprises more than half the employees of a large store; their work is probably the most distinctive of the mercantile occupations.

Important as are the activities of display men, window-trimmers, and advertising force, their work at most is only a preparation for the task of the sales person. All that window-trimmers and copy-writers can do is to bring people into the store; whether the visitors purchase merchandise depends largely upon the quality and price of the goods and upon the skill of the sales force.

[1] E. D. Toland, *Choosing the Right Career*, 87.

A few years ago a big department store, wanting to find how many people came into the establishment in a single day and how many of the incomers purchased goods, placed young men at the doors to count all who entered. The figures showed that 200,000 people came into the building during the day, but that only 60,000 of them bought any merchandise. In other words, after generous allowance for "window shoppers," the figures show that in a single day the sales force lost more than 100,000 chances to sell goods.[1] The incident reveals something of the importance of salesmanship in a mercantile establishment.

In a large department store the sales staff, beginning at the lower positions, consists of messengers, bundlers or wrappers, stock girls or stock boys, sales people, floor-managers, and the store superintendent. Messengers, bundlers, and stock-room employees are helpers of the sales staff. Messengers, or floor boys, run errands, carry goods, answer calls, and deliver messages; little training is needed for the work. Bundlers, or wrappers, tie up packages; they also compare goods with sales slips to see that no mistakes have been made in price, quantity, or quality. Stock boys and stock girls keep track of the goods on hand, report shortages to the buyer or the head of the stock room, and sometimes check incoming merchandise, attaching suitable price tags.

The sales person. The duties of a sales person are, first of all, to care for the goods in his charge. He must remove the covers, dust the merchandise, and help to display it attractively. When his supply of goods runs low, he must send word to the head of the stock room, who sees that a fresh store is provided.

A sales person must understand how to approach customers. He must know his goods so as to be able to answer questions concerning the finish, style, durability, and popularity of articles. He must be informed concerning

[1] C. H. Mackintosh, *Creative Selling*, 90–91.

other departments in the store and be able to direct inquirers to the business offices, the exchange desk, the bureau of information, the rest room, and the café. He must understand how to make out sales slips, how to handle charge accounts, how to manage transfer slips, and how to arrange for special deliveries. A sales clerk must be neat, orderly, tactful, patient, cheerful, and painstaking.

Ewing Galloway

WILL HE MAKE THE SALE?

An able salesman endeavors to meet the wants of his customers and at the same time tries to create a desire for the goods he has to sell.

The floor-manager. Sales clerks are supervised by an official sometimes called the floor man, or section-manager. He arranges their lunch hours, gives them shopping permits and passes to leave the department, and sets the dates for their vacations. When need arises he also transfers clerks from one division or department to another. In addition, he answers the questions of patrons, assists them in exchanging or returning merchandise, and approves checks and charge slips. Upon the floor-manager rests the enforcement of the rules of the store in the section over which he has charge. He, in turn, is responsible to the floor superintendent.

Store superintendent. The store superintendent has general supervision over office and staff assistants, floor superintendents, stock force, and sales people. He adjusts claims against the store, controls selling expenses, and determines the rules which govern the handling of sales

and the care of stock. A store superintendent must be a leader, with wide experience in the mercantile business, and with ability to arouse the loyalty and enthusiasm of his subordinates.

Personnel department. How can one obtain a position in a department store? How can he secure training for the work? Whose business is it to look after his interests in the establishment?

The answer to such questions is the personnel department, a division which exists in practically all business organizations. In addition to employing and training workers, the personnel department supervises promotions, transfers, life-insurance provisions, entertainments, outings, social affairs, and all other activities affecting the welfare or happiness of the employees.

At the head of the personnel department is a director, who has general supervision over all personnel work. He is usually assisted by an employment manager, who hires new employees; by an educational director, who is responsible for the training of workers; by a medical director, who looks after the health of members of the organization; and by a director of recreation, who is in charge of athletics and recreational activities. Subordinate positions in personnel departments generally include nurses, physicians, opticians, dentists, teachers, and librarians.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Describe a sales person whom you like to have wait on you, naming three or more qualities the sales person possesses.

2. Tell how knowledge of the methods of making cloth and the materials used in its manufacture will help a salesman in a dry-goods store.

3. What branch of department store work would you prefer to enter? What opportunities for promotion exist in the department you name? Tell what an employee in such a department should do to earn promotion.

4. How does a merchant estimate the cost of the goods he has for sale? List the items that enter into the expense in addition to the price paid the jobber or wholesaler.

5. Failures among grocers are said to be greater than among any other kind of storekeepers. Give the chief causes which explain the preceding statement.

6. List the chief sorts of merchandise advertised in your daily papers. What kinds of advertising are best in your community for a druggist? a grocer? a shoe merchant? Give reasons.

7. Explain the main differences in the work of a salesman in a store and a traveling salesman.

Section II. The Bank

Services of banks. Almost all business transactions require the help of banks. Farmers in want of funds to plant or harvest crops, manufacturers needing cash to pay employees, merchants requiring money to purchase goods for the fall or spring trade, go as a rule to the banks for the financial aid which they desire.

In addition to providing credit for business undertakings, banks also serve the community as places of deposit for the safekeeping of money and valuables, as agencies for the transfer of funds and the collection of bills, and as institutions to advise patrons concerning wills, land titles, and investments. By their control of credit, bankers are able to aid enterprises which benefit the community and to hamper those that are harmful. Few men have greater power for good or evil than those who manage financial institutions.

Kinds of banks. Small-town and country banks do all kinds of banking. City banks, however, occasionally specialize in only one aspect of the business; as a result, we have commercial banks, investment banks, savings banks, trust companies, and brokerage houses. In most instances, however, large city banks handle all phases of

banking, creating separate departments to look after the different aspects of the business.

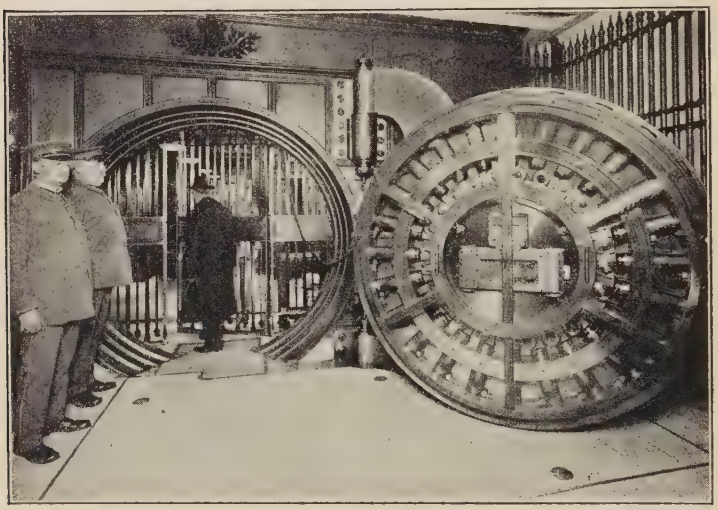
All banks engage in either commercial or investment banking, or both. Commercial banking deals with short-time loans and is usually related to the buying and selling of goods. Investment banking is concerned with long-time loans and is connected as a rule with permanent improvements such as the building of railroads, the construction of skyscrapers, and the purchase of equipment. A farmer who needs $500 to pay his helpers before he can sell his wheat crop will probably borrow the money for 60 or 90 days by means of a commercial loan, but if he wishes $2000 to build a new barn, he will probably secure the funds by a long-time, or investment, loan, giving as security a mortgage on his farm.

Savings banks, investment banks, trust companies, insurance companies, and brokerage houses handle long-time investments. Commercial banks limit their loans to the financing of industry and commerce, unless, as pointed out above, they have special departments to deal with long-time investments. Trust companies, in addition to their activities in investment banking, act as guardians for children, look after the funds of schools, colleges, and hospitals, and manage property entrusted to their charge. Brokerage houses that engage in finance handle nothing as a rule but stocks and bonds; they do not receive money on deposit nor do general banking; they frequently sell securities on the installment plan.

Occupations in banking. Although there are more than three hundred distinct occupations in banking, the work falls under three main heads: first, the receiving of money; second, selling and buying operations; third, the keeping of records. In addition to the persons engaged in such activities, banks also employ janitors and caretakers to look after the building, guards to protect the funds and securities, and in large banks personnel workers to train

new employees. Since the keeping of records is chiefly a clerical matter, the occupations required for the task will be described in the next section; the present section will be devoted to the pursuits that are distinctive of banking.

Receiving money. Money brought into a bank is received by a teller (a word meaning one who counts). He counts the



Brown Brothers

ENTRANCE TO A BANK VAULT

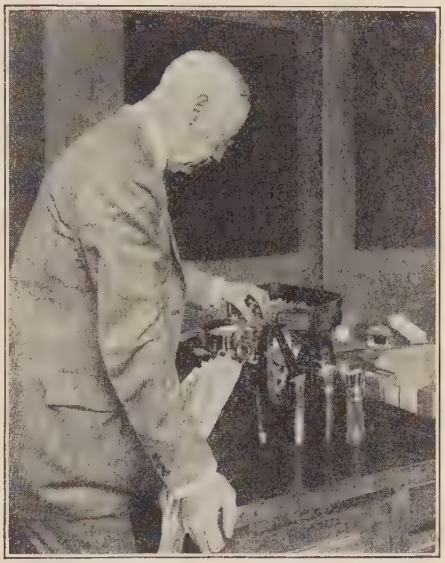
The money and valuables of a bank are kept for safety in armor-plated vaults. Guards are also employed, insurance is carried, and every precaution is taken against loss by theft or fire.

money, places it in the cash drawer, examines the deposit slip to see that the entries are correct, and credits the amount in the depositor's pass-book. Money which goes out of a bank also is handled by a teller who, after examining the check or draft to see that it is valid in all respects, counts and pays out the necessary sum. At the end of the day the teller draws up a statement, showing the money drawn from the vault during the day, the amount received and paid out, and the cash on hand. In small banks the

work of a teller is usually done by one person; large banks require many receiving tellers and paying tellers.

A teller must be expert in handling money, trustworthy, accurate, and courteous. The position of teller is usually filled by employees who have served the bank as clerks or bookkeepers.

Selling operations. The chief work of banks, as we have seen, is to receive deposits, make loans, and buy and sell securities. In order that it may have funds to lend, a bank must attract depositors who have money; in order that it may make loans, it must attract those who want to borrow money; in order that it may sell securities, it must first purchase them. In short, in order to do business a bank must buy and sell.



MONEY-COUNTING MACHINE

This machine counts coins and puts them into a bag or, if you prefer, counts and wraps them in packages at the rate of two thousand coins a minute. It is especially useful to tellers, who must handle coins in large quantities.

The selling operations of a bank may be grouped under two heads: first those connected with securing depositors and borrowers and, second, those involved in marketing securities. In both instances banks use sales methods similar to those described in the preceding section, with such variations as differences in the two lines of business suggest. Banks secure new customers through advertisements, circulars, and personal solicitations.

For the sale of securities, such as stocks and bonds, financial houses employ a sales force of both men and women. Success in selling securities requires the same qualities that are needed by the sales organization of a department store (see page 639), but the work is more difficult. Customers must be sought out, for as a rule they do not come to a bank or brokerage house as they come to a store. Frequently a bond salesman must call upon people who do not care to see him; he must become accustomed to rebuffs, to scant courtesy, and to being asked to "come again when I'm not busy"; he must not be easily discouraged. He must have pleasing manners and a winning personality, must be able to make friends and arouse confidence, and must thoroughly understand stocks and bonds and be able to convince buyers that the securities he offers are sound and profitable. Sellers of securities usually receive a salary plus a commission on sales; if successful, their incomes often run as high as $5000 or $10,000 a year or even higher.

Buying operations. As pointed out above, a financial house must first buy securities if it would sell them. Here, too, the qualities needed for success are similar to those required of buyers for a department store; for stocks, bonds, and mortgages are in one sense merely the merchandise in which financial institutions deal. A buyer of securities must know values, must understand the market, and must purchase stocks and bonds at a price that will leave a safe margin of profit for the house he represents; such knowledge requires wide experience in investments plus an understanding of the principles which underlie good business management. So important are the purchase of securities and the underwriting of bond issues, that these aspects of the business are usually handled by the chief officers of the institution.

Making loans. Closely related to the buying of stocks and bonds is the making of loans. Indeed, the making of loans is but one method of buying securities, for the

promissory notes given by borrowers are in fact securities and, like stocks and bonds, may usually be bought and sold. When an individual or company wishes to borrow, the granting of the loan up to a certain amount generally rests with the cashier. If the desired sum is large, the decision as a rule is made by the president or the board of directors. The borrower is usually required to explain the purpose for which the money is to be used and to give satisfactory security to guarantee repayment. The making of desirable loans requires sound judgment, keen business insight, and personal integrity.

Opportunities and training. Promotions in banks are generally from the foot of the ladder upward. With occasional exceptions advancement in large institutions comes in the following order: page, messenger, junior clerk, senior clerk, department head, chief clerk, teller, assistant cashier, cashier, vice president, president. For example, Mr. W. P. G. Harding, now Governor of the Federal Reserve Bank of Boston, after completing his university education, began work as a clerk in a small country bank. Four years later he became bookkeeper in a second bank, rising from one position to another during the next ten years until he became cashier. Shortly afterwards he accepted the vice presidency of a third bank, becoming its president in six years. The rise of Mr. Harding was rapid and unusual, but it illustrates the manner in which promotions generally come.

Salaries of most workers in banks are not large, ranging from $600 a year for messengers to $2000 or $3000 for tellers. Cashiers, vice presidents, and presidents of banks, however, are paid from $4000 or $5000 to $40,000 or $50,000 a year. While higher education is not essential, progress generally comes more rapidly to college graduates. Special courses in banking and business administration prove especially helpful. Long experience is usually necessary to attain an important executive position.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What occupations in banking and merchandising are much alike? Point out similarities between them. What use do savings banks make of money deposited with them? How do banks make profits?

2. Ask your neighborhood grocer how his business would suffer if the community contained no banks; ask your father the same question. Report their answers.

3. Give examples in your community, if possible, of the kinds of financial institutions mentioned on page 642.

4. If a borrower offers satisfactory security to guarantee the payment of a loan, does a banker have any right to require him to tell what he intends to do with the money? Explain.

5. Give an example of conditions under which a department store might wish to make a commercial loan. Under what circumstances might it desire a long-time loan?

6. Explain this statement: "Integrity is the most essential quality in banking."

SECTION III. THE OFFICE

Importance of office work. In all kinds of business, office workers play a vital part. They help to carry on manufacturing industries and transportation enterprises, are essential to banks, department stores, and wholesale houses, and contribute to the work of schools, colleges, hospitals, churches, and governments. Wherever money is handled or letters written or shipments made or records kept, office workers are a necessity.

Kinds of office work. Office occupations vary widely, but may be classified in three broad groups, as follows: first, correspondence; second, records; third, accounting. In small establishments, the duties of an office employee may fall in all the groups named. In some concerns, it should also be noted, office work is regarded as including the activities of the chief officers of the organization.

The handling of correspondence. All large concerns receive and send letters, telegrams, cablegrams, and radiograms every day. One mail-order house, for example, has 6,000,000 customers in all parts of the world, with whom it exchanges communications, as a rule, several times a year. The correspondence of such an establishment is, of course,

TAKING DICTATION

The stenographer usually takes down in shorthand the letters which are dictated by her employer and copies them later on the typewriter.

exceptionally large, but even a small concern often receives and sends as many as a hundred letters or more every day.

1. *Stenographers and typists.* The writing of communications is the task of stenographers and typists, most of whom are women. The chief work of a stenographer is to take messages or letters in shorthand and to transcribe what has been dictated neatly and quickly on a typewriter. In a small office a stenographer also files important papers

and correspondence, arranging the material in filing cabinets so that it can be found readily when it is wanted; in addition, a stenographer is often expected to answer the telephone calls, receive visitors, prepare the monthly bills, keep accounts, and look after the office.

In large establishments a stenographer's work is limited to taking and transcribing dictation. A typist is usually employed to do the routine typewriting involved in preparing circular letters and copying documents, or to typewrite letters from the dictaphone, an instrument which records and repeats messages which have been dictated into it. The big concerns employ distributing clerks and file clerks to sort and file letters, bills, documents, contracts, and financial papers.

CHAMPION TYPIST

The world's speed record for typewriting is held by this man who typed one hundred and thirty-three words a minute in a recent international typewriting contest. If you use a machine, what is your rate per minute?

To succeed as a stenographer a person must be able to write, spell, and punctuate correctly. He must be quick, neat, accurate, and familiar with common business practices. A mastery of shorthand and typewriting is of course essential, while acquaintance with simple bookkeeping is an important aid to advancement. Good manners, a pleasing voice, punctuality, loyalty to one's employer, patience, and tactfulness are qualities the value of which cannot be overstated.

Capable stenographers usually earn from $20 to $40 a week, typists from $12 to $25, the pay varying with the ability of the worker and at different times and in different places. A person with sufficient speed and accuracy to take down judicial proceedings may become a court stenographer and earn several thousand dollars a year. Occasionally stenographers go into business for themselves, renting an office or a desk in a hotel, and serving travelers and other persons who have letters to dictate or manuscripts which they wish copied.

2. *Private secretary.* A position as private secretary offers an attractive opening to a successful stenographer. Prominent executives cannot look after the many details which crowd their lives without consuming time and energy needed for more important work; to give relief from such burdens is the task of a private secretary.

The work of a private secretary is broader than that of a stenographer and requires much wider experience and more advanced education. A private secretary should be able not only to take dictation, typewrite letters, and file papers and correspondence, but also to reply to letters without dictation, to find information needed by the employer, and to attend to minor business obligations.

Women as well as men have proved successful as private secretaries. While ability as a stenographer is not essential, it serves as a step toward the position. The occupation makes heavy demands upon the worker, but offers rare opportunities. Among those who for a time served as private secretaries are Andrew Carnegie, George B. Cortelyou, and John Hay.

Keeping the records. No one can act wisely if he does not know what to do and how to do it; success rests on information. This is as true in the world of affairs as in the world of science. A realization of the foregoing truth is the main reason for most of the records kept by private individuals, corporations, and governments.

1. *The bookkeeper.* The need for information explains the work of the bookkeeper. His chief duty is to keep an accurate account and summary of all the business transactions of the concern by which he is employed. He must record payments and receipts, purchases and sales, funds borrowed and notes paid. In small concerns a single bookkeeper usually handles all accounts; in large companies the work is divided among entry clerks, ledger clerks, bill clerks, pay-roll clerks, statistical clerks, cost clerks, assistant bookkeepers, and head bookkeepers.

Bookkeeping requires accuracy, neatness, a good memory, and ability to concentrate on details. It necessitates a thorough knowledge of the business of the employing company, an understanding of ordinary commercial practices, and familiarity with the use of office machines. A bookkeeper earns from $50 to $200 a month; from bookkeeper one may rise to the position of cashier, buyer, treasurer, or office manager.

2. *Office-machine operators.* In the old days bookkeeping was carried on entirely by hand; the only equipment needed was ink, pen, pencil, cash book, journal, and ledger. In modern business houses, however, machines occupy almost as important a place as in a factory, the work of detail being done largely by mechanical devices run by office-machine operators. Well-equipped offices contain calculating machines, which add, subtract, multiply, and divide; billing machines, which prepare statements and invoices; tabulating machines, which assemble and sort cards according to any desired plan; duplicating machines, which turn out as many copies of material as are needed; addressing and stamping machines, which put addresses or numbers on envelopes, circulars, and cards. In large offices such machines are usually operated by beginners in the business world. The work of office-machine operators offers in itself little opportunity for promotion, but like other subordinate occupations it is a stepping-stone to higher

positions for those who do their work well and who prepare for more advanced work by study at night school or in correspondence courses.

The work of accounting. A woman once asked Dr. Samuel Johnson, the author of the first great dictionary, how he happened to make a certain bad error in that book. "Ignorance, madam, sheer ignorance!" replied the famous scholar. Many a man who has not succeeded in business, if asked the cause of his failure, might truthfully make the same reply.

The main duty of an expert accountant is to study and analyze a business so as to enable the managers and owners to know what activities pay and what ones do not pay, what methods and workers are efficient and what ones are inefficient, what enterprises are wise to undertake and what ones are to be avoided. The work of an accountant in short is to supply such knowledge about a business as is essential to its success.

Most enterprises, for example, have two kinds of expense. The first consists of the cost of the materials and labor which enter directly into the manufacture or sale of a given article; the second comprises the cost of the materials and services which enter indirectly into the manufacture or sale of an article.

An instance of the first type of expense in a department store is the price paid a manufacturer for shoes and the wages paid the sales force in the shoe department for selling the shoes; such costs can easily be recorded and summarized by a competent bookkeeper. An instance of the second type of expense in a department store is that which comes from heating and lighting the building; advertising its conveniences; maintaining its rest rooms and elevators; and paying the salaries of general office employees, floor superintendents, and managing force. Such items, commonly called overhead, can readily be estimated, but difficulty arises in determining the share of such expenses properly belonging to each department of the store. Without such

information the store-manager cannot know whether various lines of goods are profitable. Need for similar knowledge exists in all kinds of business.

The task of an expert accountant is to furnish just such information. He must study the business operations of a concern so as to find exactly what each activity or product costs. To do so he must devise a system of accounts and bookkeeping which will distribute expenses properly and which will give executives the information they need to enable them to decide the policies of the establishment. He is also expected to find whether the records have been honestly and properly kept and to reveal the exact financial condition of the business. Such investigations are made from time to time in all financial institutions and in all government offices which handle money.

Expert accounting is a new and attractive profession, requiring ability to analyze complex situations, power to discern business tendencies, and an understanding of general office practices and problems. It demands the highest type of loyalty, honor, and trustworthiness. Higher education, with emphasis upon economics, accounting, and business administration, is essential for success in the work. Most states require accountants to pass an examination in order to become certified public accountants. The occupation usually pays from $1500 to $10,000 a year, occasionally much more; the profession leads at times to important executive positions in large business organizations.

Summary. The store, the bank, and the office are essential to a modern community. The store supplies the articles we use in everyday life, the bank provides the funds which enable our industries to operate, and the office attends to the details which enter into the management of business affairs.

Occupations in stores, banks, and offices may be divided into two groups: first, those which require initiative and

judgment, and second, those which are largely routine in character. In the first group are buyers of merchandise in department stores and mail-order houses, sellers of securities in banks and brokerage firms, bookkeepers, accountants, private secretaries, and personnel workers. In the second group are messengers, wrappers, and machine operators. Between the two groups are occupations in which the work is in part of a routine nature and in part of a sort requiring judgment.

Commercial occupations vary widely in opportunity. Jobs which require only routine work resemble blind alleys and have little or no future; positions which call for judgment often have no limit to the possibilities they offer. Boys and girls attracted by work in stores, banks, or offices should fit themselves for the second type of occupation.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name one business or industry, if possible, in which no records of any kind are necessary. What records should be kept by a housewife? by a farmer?

2. Which appeals to you more, — the work of a bookkeeper or of a stenographer? Which offers the better future? Why? Do your answers depend in any way upon the industry or business in which one may be a bookkeeper or stenographer? Explain. Why is the position of machine operator in itself a blind-alley job?

3. Point out the chief differences between the work of a bookkeeper and the work of an expert accountant.

4. Which offers the best opportunity for promotion in a large department store, a position as office boy, delivery boy, or elevator boy? Give reasons.

5. A large mail-order house spends on the average $500 a month to heat the building. Tell how you should determine the proportion of the expense that ought to be borne by the sporting-goods department.

6. How can a business man determine whether it will pay to equip his office with the machines named on page 652?

END

THINGS TO DO

1. Try to trace the history of the clothes you are wearing from the original producers of the raw material to the dealer from whom you purchased them, listing all occasions on which the clothes or the material of which they are made seem to have been bought and sold.

2. Describe the most attractive show window you have seen the past week, mentioning features which pleased you. Suggest changes which in your judgment would have improved the display.

3. Choose a committee of three to invite the secretary in the office of your school to explain to the class the way in which the various office machines named on page 652 work.

4. List the occupations mentioned in this chapter in three columns, heading the columns as follows: "Occupations requiring Judgment," "Occupations of a Routine Nature," "Occupations in which Both Judgment and Routine Work Enter." Compare results and discuss differences.

5. Organize into three committees, one committee visiting a big store, the second visiting a bank, and the third a large office. Before making the visit, suggest questions each committee is to investigate. Exchange experiences in class.

6. Choose a committee of two pupils to go to a bank and secure a pass-book, deposit blanks, and other forms used in banking, and the information necessary to explain to the class the use of each form.

7. Paste in your notebook four attractive advertisements taken from magazines. Select one for its colorful description, one for its appealing illustrations, one for its striking graphs, and one for its effective use of different kinds of type.

8. Make a table showing the commercial occupations in six business concerns in your community. Include in the table messengers, stenographers, bookkeepers, office-machine operators, typists, private secretaries, sales persons, buyers, cashiers, and accountants. Arrange the table as shown on the opposite page, putting a cross (×) in each column opposite each industry in which the occupation named at the top of the column is found.

Business Concerns	Managers	Stenographers	Bookkeepers	Office-Machine Operators	Typists	Private Secretaries	Sales Persons	Buyers	Cashiers	Accountants
1.										
2.										
3.										
4.										
5.										
6.										

9. Write a "For Sale" or a "For Exchange" advertisement of an article you wish to sell or trade. Make your description accurate and appealing. Limit yourself to forty words. Exchange and read the advertisements in class.

10. Try to figure out exactly what you are costing your parents each month. In your calculations include the expense of food, clothing, and schooling, and also your fair share of the cost of rent, heat, light, insurance, laundry, taxes, and household furnishings. Show your findings in the form of a graph.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. * "John Wanamaker, Founder of the Department Store," *Heroes of Progress*, 122–131.
2. "What Modern Storekeepers Think About," D. K. David, *In Our Times*, 92–96.
3. "The Commercial Bank," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 234–239.
4. "Improving our Market Machinery," *ibid.*, 426–432.
5. "The Mail-Order House," A. Bennett, *The Worker and his Work*, 42–45.
6. * "Fanny Herself," E. Ferber, *ibid.*, 64–71.
7. "The Emporium," H. G. Wells, *ibid.*, 72–76.
8. "The Man within Him," E. Ferber, *ibid.*, 108–123.
9. * "Banks: How they put Dollars to Work," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, I, 327–329.
10. "The Store, the Bank, and the Office," *Readings in Community Life*, Part V, section 5.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. *How to become an Office Stenographer*, by W. L. Mason. Putnam.
2. *Writing an Advertisement*, by S. R. Hall. Houghton.
3. *The Making of a Merchant*, by H. N. Higginbotham. Forbes.
4. *The Training of a Salesman*, by William Maxwell. Lippincott.
5. *The Stenographic Expert*, by W. B. Bottome. Gregg.
6. *Traveling Salesmanship*, by A. W. Douglas. Macmillan.
7. *The Private Secretary, the Duties and Opportunities of the Position*, by Edward J. Kilduff. Century.
8. *How to become a Private Secretary*, by Robert F. Rose. Funk.
9. * *The Romance of a Great Store*, by Edward Hungerford. McBride.
10. *The Modern Bank*, by Amos K. Fiske. Appleton.
11. *The Life History of J. Pierpont Morgan*, by Carl Hovey. Heineman.
12. *Retail Training Service*, by O. S. Rappold. Forbes.
13. *Department Store Occupations*, by I. P. O'Leary. Russell Sage Foundation.
14. *Advertising as a Vocation*, by Frederick J. Allen. Macmillan.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *Jimmy Quigg, Office Boy*, by Harold S. Latham. Macmillan.
2. *The Enchanted Type-writer*, by John K. Bangs. Harper.
3. * *Emma McChesney and Co.*, by Edna Ferber. Stokes.
4. *The Methods of Mr. Sellyer*, by Stephen Leacock. Lane.
5. *The Tradesman Turned Gentleman*, by Jean-Baptiste P. Molière. Putnam.
6. *Without Mercy*, by John Goodwin. Putnam.

CHAPTER XXX

WORKING FOR THE STATE

The best shall serve the state.—Motto of the State of Wisconsin

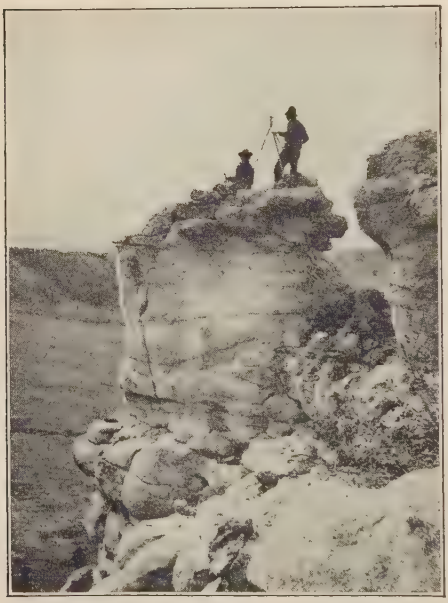
Section I. Kinds of Government Work

The government as an employer. The United States is the largest employer in the world. The executive branch of the government requires the services of over 500,000 persons; workers in the legislative and judicial departments number several thousand more; officers and men in the army and navy total an additional quarter of a million. Our state governments also require large numbers of workers. Illinois employs 11,000, California more than 15,000, and New York over 32,000. Our local governments, however, lead the nation; including teachers in the public schools, our cities, counties, and townships employ 1,500,000 persons. All told, it is said, the nation, the state, and the local communities employ more than 3,000,000 men and women to carry on public enterprises.

Nature of government work. Our governments use all kinds of workers, indoor and outdoor, skilled and unskilled, learned and unlearned. They employ mechanics and bookkeepers, teachers and librarians, sailors and railroad men, stenographers and surveyors, physicians and engineers. Building, manufacturing, printing, forestry, farming, and transportation, as well as many other industries, enter into governmental undertakings and require workers who can carry on such activities with success.

Since such lines of work have been discussed, the present chapter will be confined to occupations which in large

measure are governmental in character. Of such occupations the most important are found in legislatures, in high executive offices, in military and police work, in the diplomatic service, and in education.



MEN WHO MAKE GOVERNMENT MAPS

To carry on governmental activities requires all kinds of workers, — unskilled laborers, mechanics, teachers, physicians, and scientists. These topographic engineers, who are employed in the United States Geological Survey, are taking measurements for use in making a government map.

Planning government activities. In industry, as we noticed earlier, on page 579, the work is planned by promoters, inventors, architects, and designers. Similarly, government enterprises and policies are determined and planned by the members of legislative bodies and by such executives as the mayor of a city, the governor of a state, or the president of the United States. To be chosen by the people of this country to make the laws or to decide public policies is one of the greatest opportunities and honors that can come to anyone; to be prepared to fill such a position is a worthy ambition.

With few exceptions a person who desires to "go in for politics" must begin at the bottom. After securing an education he generally finds it helpful to join a party organization and to take an active part in "getting out the vote," in distributing campaign literature, and in speaking

at political rallies. Within a year or so he may be nominated and elected to a minor office, or he may secure an appointment to a clerkship. If successful in winning friends and in doing his work, he may in a few years become a legislator, a judge, or an influential executive.

Theodore Roosevelt's career, while exceptional, shows how a capable and ambitious man may succeed in politics. After his graduation from Harvard University, Roosevelt joined a local Republican club in New York City. A year later he was elected to the state legislature, in which he served three terms. He was a member of the Republican national convention in 1884 and took an active part in the ensuing campaign. After two years of ranch life he became the Republican candidate for mayor of New York City, but was defeated. Shortly afterwards he was appointed a member of the United States Civil Service Commission in Washington, D.C. Here he served for six years, when he accepted the position of police commissioner in New York. Two years later the influence of friends brought him an appointment as Assistant Secretary of the Navy. Upon the outbreak of the War with Spain he resigned his position, joined the Rough Riders, won distinction in Cuba, and at the end of the conflict was nominated and elected governor of New York. In 1900 he received the Republican nomination for the vice presidency, was triumphantly elected, and upon the assassination of McKinley the following fall became president of the United States, the youngest man in the history of the nation to hold the office of chief executive.

The men and women who make our laws and decide our political policies have usually followed other occupations before accepting public office; indeed, members of city councils, county boards, and state legislatures continue to look after their business or profession when the law-making body of which they are members is not in session, for their tasks as legislators rarely demand all their time. But, since Congress is in session most of the year, United

States representatives and senators as a rule are forced to suspend their regular work in order to attend to their legislative duties.

In the opinion of many people the choice of politics as a sole occupation is a mistake. Regardless of training and efficiency, a person in a political office may lose his position when a change of parties occurs. He should then have another line of work on which to fall back; otherwise his usefulness in public service is almost certain to suffer. Writing in his autobiography about this aspect of politics, Roosevelt says:

> It is a dreadful misfortune for a man to grow to feel that his whole livelihood and whole happiness depend upon his staying in office. Such a feeling prevents him from being of real service to the people while in office, and always puts him under the heaviest strain or pressure to barter his convictions for the sake of holding office. A man should have some other occupation — I had several other occupations — to which he can resort if at any time he is thrown out of office, or if at any time he finds it necessary to choose a course which will probably result in his being thrown out, unless he is willing to stay in at cost to his conscience.

Protecting life and property. The main duty of any government is to protect life and property. The most numerous and most important of the government workers engaged in protective activities are firemen and policemen, public-health employees, coast guards, and the officers and men in the army, navy, and marine corps. Since the activities of public-health employees, firemen, and policemen can be studied at first hand in almost all communities, the present chapter will be limited to the work of the coast guard, the army, the navy, and the marines.

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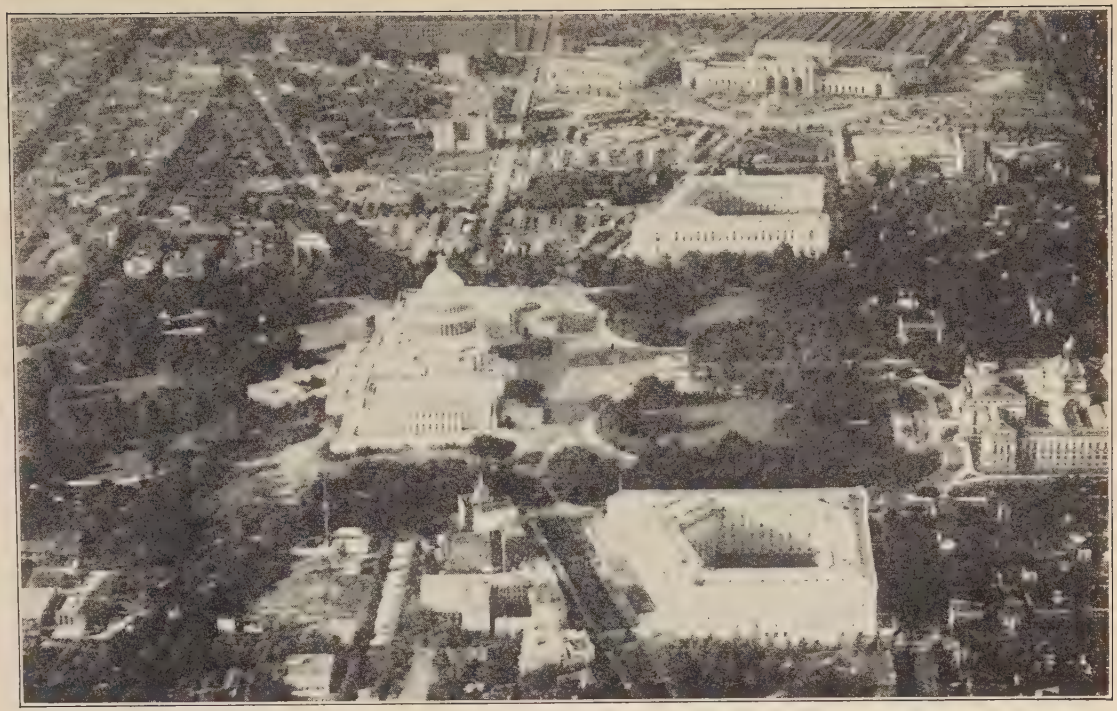
*Government work is in progress in all the white buildings in the picture with the exception of the Union Station in the right background. Between the Capitol (center) and the Congressional Library (extreme right) are the office buildings of the House of Representatives and the Senate. The Washington Post Office stands at the left of the station in the background. List the different occupations found in these government buildings.



THE CENTER OF OUR NATIONAL GOVERNMENT *

1. *The coast guard.* The chief work of the United States Coast Guard is (1) to protect life and property along our ten thousand miles of coast, (2) to prevent smuggling and to help enforce the revenue laws, (3) to coöperate in the international ice patrol off Newfoundland, warning vessels of the location of icebergs, (4) to aid in the enforcement of quarantine and neutrality regulations, and (5) to help guard our coast against attack in time of war.

UNITED STATES COAST GUARD

The coast guard rescues the shipwrecked, patrols the coast, and enforces laws pertaining to shipping and navigation. (By courtesy of the U. S. Coast Guard.)

At intervals along our lake coasts and seacoasts are located over two hundred coast-guard stations, each equipped with lifeboats, launching apparatus, and the like, and each manned by a keeper and eight surfmen. The service is equipped also with seventy revenue cutters and a large number of patrol boats. As in a fire department, two or more members of a coast-guard crew are always on duty. Usually one man is in the station tower on the lookout for wrecks and signals of distress, while a second man patrols the beach. With the aid of the radio and telephone the

different stations are able to communicate with one another and to coöperate in helping endangered vessels and in rescuing shipwrecked sailors and travelers.

The coast guard numbers about 8000 officers and men. The service requires men of action who are strong, cool, and courageous. It also demands ability in seamanship and familiarity with the revenue and quarantine laws and with navigation regulations. A qualified person may join the coast guard in much the same manner as he would join the army, the navy, or the marines. Enlistments are for one, two, or three years. The pay varies from $21 a month and living for a newly enlisted man to $6000 a year for the officer in command of the entire service.

2. *Army.* A modern army needs men of many occupations. In addition to soldiers and officers it requires aviators, clergymen, chemists, engineers, and physicians. In time of peace our army ordinarily numbers about 130,000 men.

Any able-bodied young man with a clean personal record may enlist in the army. As a private his pay is $21 a month, but in favorable conditions he may rise to a rank entitling him to pay as high as $126 a month; he also receives food, clothing, lodging, dental service, and medical attention. If he desires, he may attend an army-post school and receive free instruction in the common branches, in business methods, or in technical subjects. The army, as it boasts, offers an opportunity to "earn, learn, and travel."

If a soldier proves especially capable, he may be appointed to the United States Military Academy at West Point, New York, and learn to be an officer, or he may through examination rise from the ranks to the position of officer. Boys and young men who have had no experience in the army may gain admission to the military academy through examination following the recommendation of their representatives in Congress, the head of an

honor military school, the president of the United States, or certain other public officials. Upon completing the four-year course, graduates usually receive commissions as second lieutenants in the regular army. Application to duty generally brings steady, if slow, promotions in rank.

WEST POINT CADETS

From six o'clock in the morning until ten o'clock at night every minute in the day of a West Point cadet is lived according to schedule. The rigorous training and thorough education provided by the academy make the institution one of the leading military schools in the world.

3. *Navy.* Opportunities in the navy are much like those in the army. Here work is even more specialized, carpenters, engineers, firemen, electricians, and wireless operators being in demand. Requirements for enlistment, chances for promotions, and pay are practically the same as in the army. Naval officers usually receive training in the naval academy at Annapolis, Maryland, appointments being made in about the same way as at West Point.

4. *Marine corps.* This famous organization, which in time of peace numbers about 20,000 officers and men, provides the navy with a body of troops trained to fight on land. Detachments of the force have served in all parts of the world. Pay and opportunities for advancement are almost the same as in the army. The marine corps is responsible to the Secretary of the Navy.

Dealing with foreign countries. The most important officials dealing with foreign relations, except the Secretary of State and the assistant secretaries, are ambassadors, ministers, consuls, and commercial attachés. Ambassadors and ministers are political appointments; consuls and commercial attachés receive their positions under civil-service regulations.

1. *Ambassadors and ministers.* These officials are almost always appointed because of services they have rendered to their party. They represent the United States in foreign countries, transmitting communications, keeping their own government informed about conditions and movements likely to affect the interests of the United States, protecting American citizens in times of danger, and occasionally conducting treaty negotiations. The details of the work are usually looked after by counselors, secretaries, and clerks.

2. *Consuls.* The United States has consuls in every important city in the world. The duties of consuls are to aid American travelers, to promote American trade, to assist in the enforcement of our immigration and revenue laws, and to witness wills and marriages of citizens of the United States living within their districts. Consular work as a rule is pleasant and the surroundings are congenial. It offers opportunities for travel, provides contacts with new scenes, and gives fresh points of view. The salary varies from $2500 to $9000 a year. A person who wishes to become a consul should master at least one foreign language and should be familiar with economics, history, and political science. He

should also have some knowledge of commercial law and international law.

3. *Commercial attachés.* These men are appointed to the leading trade centers in foreign countries to promote American commerce and business. They investigate foreign manufacturing, agriculture, shipping, and banking, and send reports to the United States government of trade conditions and commercial opportunities in their districts. The salaries of commercial attachés are from $5000 to $8000 a year.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name eight or ten occupations one may enter in government service. Make a list of the different kinds of government workers you have seen the last week.

2. Why do the cities employ more people than the states?

3. How is the work of a governor like the work of an architect? Explain the chief differences in the activities of the former as compared with those of the latter.

4. Show how opportunities in the army, navy, or marine corps justify the slogan, "Earn, learn, and travel." Which line of service, in your opinion, best fulfills the statement?

5. Which should you prefer to join, — the army, navy, or a police force? Give reasons.

6. What shall you do on completing your schooling if you decide to enter politics? Why should a person who desires a political career have another occupation? What occupations had Roosevelt? What other occupations has your present mayor or your governor?

Section II. Opportunities in Education

Educational work. Educational activities are for the most part conducted by local communities and states. Aside from teachers in private institutions and those who give instruction in Indian schools, in the District of Columbia,

and in the territories and island possessions of the United States, all school teachers are employed by local and state authorities.

Education embraces many kinds of work in positions ranging from the kindergarten to the university. It provides opportunities for specializing in one subject or for handling many subjects, for teaching boys and girls, or for giving instruction to mature men and women. It needs workers of all types of ability. Educational positions pay from $200 to $20,000 a year.

Teachers. The great majority of educational workers are teachers in elementary schools and high schools. To succeed in such work, one must like boys and girls, must understand their problems and difficulties, and must feel a genuine interest in their welfare. He must have a thorough knowledge of the subject, or subjects, which he teaches, and must be able to impart his knowledge and enthusiasm to his pupils.

Preparation for teaching depends on the kind of teaching one wishes to do. In the old days almost anyone who could pass a simple examination was permitted to teach; today most states require that teachers in rural schools or elementary grades must be high-school graduates; in the better school systems, study in a normal school or teachers' college also is a common requirement. Teaching positions in most high schools are open only to college graduates. Normal schools and colleges generally demand graduate study and, in some instances, advanced degrees. University teaching is limited, for the most part, to holders of advanced degrees who have proved their ability as investigators and writers in their chosen field of research.

Supervisors and administrators. The chief work of a supervisor is to direct and improve instruction in the schools; the main duty of an administrator is to deal with the business details connected with educational activities. In the larger school systems these two lines of work are

performed by different officers, but in many communities both supervision and administration are handled by principals and superintendents. Cities and some counties employ special supervisors of music, household arts, manual training, penmanship, drawing, and physical education. Many communities also have special supervisors or heads of departments to guide instruction in English, science, and the social studies; such positions generally come to teachers who have proved skillful in the classroom, who have had wide experience, and who have made special preparation for supervision.

Principals and superintendents have the chief responsibility for the schools under their charge. Subject to the approval of the board of education, a superintendent usually oversees the erection of new buildings, the purchase of supplies, the employment of teachers and office force, the selection of textbooks, the upkeep of school property, and the planning of the curriculum. So far as time permits, he also supervises classroom instruction. Important principalships and superintendencies require broad education together with wide and successful experience. The work demands patience, tact, firmness, self-control, breadth of vision, and high moral standards.

Advantages and disadvantages in educational work. Like all occupations, teaching has certain disadvantages. Compared with some professions, it is poorly paid; chances for advancement are often limited. On the other hand, teaching affords opportunities for service and enjoyment that are equaled by few occupations. The teacher deals with people, not things; his surroundings are usually pleasant; his work contains much variety; he is respected in the community. He may make his life count by influencing boys and girls for good. To quote President Calvin Coolidge: "Teaching is one of the noblest of professions. Those who mold the human mind have wrought not for time, but for eternity."

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What are the requirements for teaching in the rural schools in your county? in the elementary grades in your community? in your high school?

2. Tell about a teacher who helped you in the early elementary grades.

3. How does teaching in the kindergarten differ from teaching in the fourth grade?

4. Does your community have a salary schedule in the schools? If so, find its main provisions.

5. What kind of educational work appeals most to you? Give reasons.

Section III. Securing Positions in Government Service

The civil service. "To the victors belong the spoils of the enemy" was the slogan adopted by President Jackson and his followers after their famous victory in the election of 1828; as a result, for the next fifty years public offices were used to reward party workers. In 1883, however, Congress passed the Pendleton Act, introducing a merit system to take the place of the spoils system, under which the public service had sunk to a low degree of efficiency.

The merit plan included at first only 14,000 positions to be filled through competitive examination; the remaining positions continued to be filled by appointment without examination to determine the candidate's fitness for the position. But as the years passed, every president made additions to the classified service. As a result more than 400,000 persons now hold their places in the national government on merit; only 140,000 positions remain unclassified, and over four fifths of these are filled by unskilled laborers and by persons who work for the Post Office under contract. The other fifth are occupied chiefly by high political appointees, such as members of the cabinet, assistant

secretaries of departments, bureau heads, and collectors of revenues. Positions of this sort, as we have seen, are with few exceptions filled by the president, subject to confirmation by the Senate.

The example set by the national government has been followed by many states and cities and by a few counties. Policemen, firemen, food inspectors, draftsmen, teachers,

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CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

This Commission has charge of the examination of applicants for positions in the classified service and guards against the violation of civil-service regulations. The Commission consists of three persons, only two of whom may belong to the same political party.

stenographers, typists, and nurses in public service secure their positions in increasing numbers on a merit basis.

The classified service. Where the merit system is in operation a person who desires to secure an appointment should first of all investigate the requirements for the position. He should then secure an application blank from the civil-service authorities, supply the information called for, and appear for examination when notified. The character of the examination depends, of course, on the nature of the position; examinations for stenographers and book-

keepers are very different from those for chemists or trade commissioners. The United States Civil Service Commission now has tests for almost 2000 different kinds of positions. In a bulletin describing the examinations the commission says:

A civil-service examination does not necessarily require that one sit at a desk and answer questions on geography, solve problems in arithmetic, and spell words. It may be a written question-and-answer test on certain subjects, it may be proving certain experience and accomplishment by credible evidence, it may be exhibiting necessary personal qualities in an interview, or a combination of any or all of these.

In many private plants laborers are selected by a foreman who looks over a crowd about the factory gate and picks out the most sturdy looking of the lot. The Government in most of its plants has the applicant examined by a physician, who discovers many defects the private foreman would never see. Besides, the strength of each applicant is tested.

In many private offices the selection of stenographers is based on the applicants' claims as to what they can do, or on statements of others as to what they have done. The Government gives them notebook and typewriter and asks them to demonstrate their ability by actually doing a stenographer's work.

The private employer selects an employee to enter his chemical laboratory as a junior chemist to learn the business, on his record at college and his personal reputation. The Government considers not only his record at college and his reputation, but puts appropriate questions to him in order to determine what he actually learned about chemistry while he was in college.

The names of persons who succeed in the examination are placed on the eligible list, ranked in the order of their marks. Appointments are distributed among the states in accordance with population, but must be made from the three names at the top of the list. Preference is usually given both in the states and in the nation to soldiers, sailors, and marines who have been honorably discharged from the service.

Promotion. Promotion in the Federal service comes as a result of success in further examinations, although the service record of the candidate and the judgment of his superior officer play an important part in his advancement. Most states and cities also base promotion on examination, service record, and recommendation, but in some instances the law requires that a subordinate be selected to fill a vacancy in a higher position. Although the difficulties in advancement which have previously been pointed out as existing in large concerns (see page 647) may prove even greater in government employment, the door of opportunity is always open to persons who through superior work, hard study, and successful examination qualify for promotion.

Summary. Government work in our country requires the services of three million men and women. The planning of public activities and enterprises is the task of legislative bodies and of officials holding high executive office. Protection of life and property falls chiefly to policemen and firemen, soldiers and sailors, coast guards, lighthouse-keepers, and public-health workers. Relations with foreign countries are cared for by the diplomatic service and by commercial agents. Public education is the business of hundreds of thousands of teachers, supervisors, and administrators. The delivery of the mails, the collection of revenues, the keeping of records, and the handling of the countless details involved in government work are looked after by a host of bookkeepers, typists, stenographers, carriers, and clerks. Government service includes all kinds of occupations.

Positions in the government may be secured through popular election; all legislators and most of the important executive and judicial officers in the states, counties, and local communities are chosen by vote. Positions may be obtained also through appointment, with few or no restrictions upon the appointing officer; instances of the sort

are positions in the president's cabinet, the Federal courts, and foreign embassies. Finally, one may enter government service through examination on the basis of fitness to do the work involved; of such character are positions in police and fire departments, in the army and navy, in the classified civil service, and in the schools. Opportunities for advancement depend in the main on service records and on further examinations.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is the meaning of the word "state" as used in the title of this chapter?

2. Make a list of occupations in the government, not discussed in this chapter, which offer attractive opportunities (1) to men and (2) to women.

3. Explain the three chief ways in which one may secure a government position. Which of the three covers the highest positions? Which embraces the largest number?

4. Explain the chief objections to the spoils system. Should all government positions be filled through examination? Give reasons.

5. If you were a bookkeeper or a stenographer, should you prefer a position in a private industry or in a government office? Why?

6. Explain the advantages of the government's method of securing workers, as described on page 673, over the methods used by many private concerns.

THINGS TO DO

1. Choose a member of the class to write to the United States Civil Service Commission, Washington, D.C., and request copies of recent examination questions, the *Manual of Examinations*, and bulletins explaining the steps necessary to secure a position in the classified service. Report to the class when the material comes from Washington.

2. Choose a classmate to write to the civil-service commission of your state at your state capital, requesting material similar to that mentioned in No. 1. Report as indicated above.

3. Write answers to one of the lists of questions received from the inquiries suggested in Nos. 1 and 2. Exchange and grade papers. Discuss differences of opinion.

4. Select two boys to ask your postmaster, or one of his assistants, whether it is possible to obtain employment in the local post office during the holidays or at other vacation seasons. If work is available, ask about its character and the wages paid. Note also and report upon the announcements for civil-service examinations on the bulletin board at the post office.

5. Arrange in two columns the main positions in your state or local government, putting in the first column all occupations which you consider distinctly governmental and in the second column the occupations found in other lines of work.

6. Bring to class newspaper clippings illustrating different kinds of government work. Arrange the clippings in your notebook in whatever groups you think best, but be able to give reasons for the method of grouping you adopt.

7. Name three government positions that attract you. After each write a paragraph describing the qualities and preparation needed for success in the work. Exchange papers and read aloud in class, commenting on points on which you disagree with the person whose paper you read.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. * "The Lighthouse Keeper," A. C. Inman, *In Our Times*, 349–350.
2. "John Joseph Pershing, General of the United States Army," *Modern Great Americans*, 176–190.
3. "Working for the State," *Readings in Community Life*, Part V, section 6.
4. "The War Department," *The American Government*, 105–120.
5. "The Navy Department," *ibid.*, 151–164.
6. * "The Marine Corps," *ibid.*, 165–170.
7. "The Civil Service Commission," *ibid.*, 371–380.
8. * "Life Savers and their Work," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, IV, 1995–1997.

II. Home Readings

1. *From Midshipman to Rear Admiral*, by Bradley A. Fiske. Century.
2. *Sentinels along our Coast*, by F. A. Collins. Century.
3. *Man o' War Life*, by C. Nordhoff. Dodd.
4. *The Teacher*, by F. B. Pearson. Scribner.
5. *The Consul*, by R. H. Davis. Scribner.
6. * *A Sailor's Log*, by Robley D. Evans. Appleton.
7. *Uncle Sam's Sailors*, by F. Green. Appleton.
8. * *Jim Davis*, by John Masefield. Grosset.
9. *The Beach Patrol*, by William Drysdale. Wilde.
10. *Little Jarvis*, by M. E. Seawell. Appleton.
11. *Soldiers of the Sea*, by Willis J. Abbot. Dodd.

CHAPTER XXXI

SERVING THE PUBLIC

Service, that is the word to write on all men's hearts, service to one's country and one's fellow men. — ABRAHAM LINCOLN

SECTION I. CARING FOR BODILY ILLS

The professions. Professions are occupations that require special knowledge, skill, and ability. They are vocations that deal largely with ideas rather than with material things. They call for judgment, reflection, and insight. As a rule they demand college or university education and in addition generally require extensive technical training. They are often undertaken with a view to public service rather than for mere private gain.

Among the professions that have already been described in this book are the occupations of the teacher, the public accountant, the architect, and the engineer. Of those that remain for examination the most important are those of the physician, the dentist, the nurse, the lawyer, the clergyman, the author, the newspaper man, and the artist. In this section we shall consider the professions devoted primarily to the relief of bodily ills.

The practice of medicine. Medicine is one of the oldest of professions. Long before writing was invented, men practiced the art of healing. In every land today the physician is an essential and honored member of the community. On his service and devotion depends the physical well-being of society. He is the friend and servant of us all. To quote Commissioner of Health Herman N. Bundesen of Chicago:

It is the physician who ushered you into this world; who will be with you at your last moment; who stands by you in time of happiness and in the hour of sorrow; who keeps your secrets inviolate; who serves you any time of day or night, in snow, rain, or sunshine; who sacrifices rest, comfort, and even his riches not only to keep you well but to prevent you from getting sick; who is much thought of in sickness and often quickly forgotten in health; who serves the poor as faithfully as the rich.

The duty of the physician is to prevent disease, cure illness, relieve suffering, and prolong life. His vocation involves three kinds of work: first, internal medicine, the treatment of disease by the use of drugs and medicines; second, surgery, the repair of the body by human carpentry; third, medical research, the investigation of the causes of and remedies for disease through experiments usually carried on in laboratories. As a vocation the medical profession falls into two general fields: first, the general practitioner, or family doctor; and second, the specialist, who concentrates on one line of work.

1. *The general practitioner.* The general practitioner leads a busy and varied life. He treats all kinds of disease, from chicken pox and measles to pneumonia and tuberculosis. He handles cases requiring surgical attention, occasionally removing tonsils, extracting teeth, setting broken bones, and, if necessary, amputating an arm or a leg. He responds to all calls, night or day, summer or winter, in fair weather and foul. The general practitioner is found usually in rural communities and small towns, but he also occupies an important place among the people who dwell in large cities and renders them invaluable service. He has been called "the backbone of the profession."

2. *The specialist.* As in other occupations, the progress of medicine has been attended by specialization. In addition to specialists in the diseases of men, women, and children, we now have medical workers who devote their energies to treating disorders of the eye and the ear, the nose and

the throat, the nerves, bones, skin, lungs, heart, stomach, liver, and indeed almost every organ in the body. Medical research also has specialists in such fields as bacteriology, pathology, biological chemistry, and diagnosis. More

A SURGICAL OPERATION

Surgeons spare no pains to guard against infection during an operation. They put rubber gloves on their hands, wear freshly laundered white garments, cover their heads with skull caps, and place gauze masks over their mouths and nostrils. The nurse sterilizes their instruments and sees that the operating room is spotless. In this picture the physician at the right is giving the anesthetic, the nurses at the left and in the background stand ready to serve when called upon, and the two surgeons in the center are performing the operation.

than in any previous time, medical work offers opportunity for wide variations in ability, aptitudes, and interests.

Qualifications for medical work. A physician must have good health. His work at times requires exposure, irregular meals, and insufficient sleep. His tasks bring heavy responsibilities and severe nervous tension. Only a person possessing a rugged, vigorous body can stand the strain.

A physician must be able to inspire confidence. He must remain calm even when those about him become excited and lose self-control. He must be cheerful and optimistic. "Faith in the doctor," according to a famous surgeon, "is the basis of the profession."

A physician must have courage. His work means repeated exposure to disease and contagion. He must not be afraid of epidemics. He must have self-confidence and self-reliance. He must be ready to meet emergencies as they arise and quick to devise ways of dealing with unexpected situations.

A physician must be willing to work, and work hard. After he has completed a medical course he must continue his investigations. In no other way can he keep informed concerning new methods and discoveries. His work is never ended, continuing sometimes for ten, twelve, or fourteen hours a day for seven days in the week. Even his vacations must often be spent in advanced study.

Education and training for medical work. Few professions are more exacting than medicine. If you wish to become a doctor, you must complete a high-school course and at least two years of college before you can enter a first-class medical school; a number of the best medical schools demand four years of college work for entrance. The course in medicine usually requires four years plus an additional year or two as interne in a hospital. If you wish to become a specialist, you must also study one or more years in the line of work on which you wish to concentrate. Finally, in most states you must pass a severe examination in order to receive a license to practice. No profession requires longer or more difficult training than medicine.

Disadvantages and advantages in medical work. No one should take up medicine unless he has a sincere love for the work. The period of preparation, as shown above, is long and laborious. After training is completed, years of toil are usually necessary before one can earn a fair living. Even

then the financial reward as a rule is not large, the income of most physicians being from $2000 to $4000 a year.

To one who feels a genuine love for the profession, however, medicine offers opportunities that far outweigh its disadvantages. Few vocations confer greater benefits upon the community; none is regarded more highly. The greatest compensation in the vocation, of course, comes from the service it makes possible and the satisfaction which is found in doing needful work. In the words of a noted physician:

> To be a doctor is to be a servant, always at the beck and call of every one who needs you, overworked, very likely underpaid, but living nearer to the hearts and souls of men than any other profession will let you.

DENTIST AT WORK

Skill, accuracy, thoroughness, intelligence, and sympathetic consideration are qualities which mark the work of a capable dentist.

Dentistry. Closely related to medicine is the profession of dentistry, which includes much more than the pulling or the filling of teeth. We now know that many diseases are caused by defects of teeth and can be cured only by the aid of the dentist. Like medicine, dentistry has its specialists, the most important being dental surgeons, whose practice is limited to the extraction of teeth; orthodontists, who confine their efforts to the straightening of children's teeth; mechanical dentists, who manufacture braces, plates, and artificial teeth; and dental hygienists, whose chief work is the cleaning of teeth.

The main qualifications for dentistry are accuracy, thoroughness, and honesty. The profession requires a high

degree of mechanical skill, ingenuity, and inventiveness. In personality the dentist must be always pleasant and cheerful; in dress and appearance he must be scrupulously clean.

Preparation for dentistry usually consists of a high-school course, at least two years of college, and three or four years of training in a dental school. To equip an office adequately requires from $1000 to $1500. Several years are necessary to build up a practice which will make a dentist self-supporting; if successful, a dentist often earns $6000 a year, or more.

THE PHARMACIST

The work of a pharmacist includes merchandising as well as the filling of prescriptions. Often a soda fountain and a candy counter add attraction to his store.

Pharmacy. In the old days the doctor himself usually prepared the drugs and the medicines which he prescribed for his patients. At the present time, however, physicians generally write out prescriptions to be filled at a drugstore by a licensed pharmacist. In this way pharmacy becomes an important aid to medicine.

To become a pharmacist, a person must go through high school, complete a course in a college of pharmacy, and pass a state examination. In some states a year or two of apprenticeship also is necessary before one may be registered. A qualified person may secure employment in a

manufacturing pharmacy or a retail establishment; or he may set up a retail pharmacy or a drugstore of his own.

Since the mixing of drugs or the preparation of medicines is usually insufficient to provide a livelihood in itself, the practice of pharmacy is generally combined with merchandising. In addition to filling prescriptions, therefore, a pharmacist must be a salesman; for the stock of an ordinary drugstore includes not only drugs but also candy, toilet preparations, rubber goods, cigars, stationery, and a soda fountain. To outfit a drugstore adequately requires from $4000 to $8000. The yearly income of a successful independent pharmacist runs from $3000 to $5000.

Nursing. Women have found attractive work in all the professions that minister to physical ailments. Of the 150,000 physicians, surgeons, and osteopaths in the country, almost 10,000 are women; of the 60,000 dentists, 2000 are women; and of the 80,000 persons engaged in pharmacy, about 4000 are women. In the field of nursing, however, women occupy the leading place; for of the 150,000 persons in this profession, only 6000 are men.

Nursing calls for much the same personal qualities as medicine. A nurse must have physical strength, good health, an even temperament, tact, patience, self-control, and above all common sense. Training is secured in schools connected with hospitals. To become a professional nurse, an applicant must usually be at least twenty years of age. The best training schools demand for entrance graduation from high school. The course generally requires three years, the first six months being a period of probation, when a candidate is on trial. During training a student nurse receives board, room, and laundry, and in addition is paid a small wage sufficient to cover the cost of uniforms and incidental items.

Various opportunities are open to graduate nurses. The most important are (1) private nursing, in which a nurse cares for a patient in a private home or hospital under

the direction of a physician or surgeon; (2) institutional nursing, in which a worker serves as a regular member of the staff in a hospital or in the infirmary of a college, an industrial concern, or an orphans' home; and (3) public-health nursing, which includes the visiting of homes, schools, and public institutions, under government employment. A nurse who has graduated from a first-class training school generally earns from $35 to $75 a week, in addition to board, lodging, and laundry.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Mention three ways in which a profession differs from a trade; three ways in which a profession is unlike a business. Name a specific profession, trade, and business in making your comparisons.

2. Why are requirements for medicine higher than requirements for dentistry? Why are requirements for dentistry higher than those for pharmacy?

3. Point out ways in which medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, and nursing are alike. What seems the chief distinctive trait of each profession named?

4. Why are more women engaged in nursing than in medicine, dentistry, or pharmacy?

5. What are professional nurses usually paid in your community? Are they ordinarily on twelve-hour service or on twenty-four-hour service? Do they seem to have steady employment?

6. Why do not physicians and dentists advertise? Why do most states require pharmacists and physicians to pass examinations?

7. Select members of the class who, in your opinion, would make able physicians, dentists, pharmacists, or nurses. Be able to explain your selections.

8. Which profession has the greatest attraction for you, — medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, or nursing? Give reasons.

9. *Special report for a volunteer:* Martyrs to medicine. See "Greater Love hath No Man" in the *Literary Digest*, LXXXVIII, 25–26.

Section II. Helping to Remedy Social Ills

Solving social problems. Lawyers and social workers have as their main task the solution of social ills. The requirements and activities of the professions they represent differ widely, but their aim is much the same: both try to prevent human troubles from arising; both endeavor to see that justice is done when wrong or injury is suffered; both attempt to adjust or straighten out difficulties when controversies or disputes develop. As a rule both professions are influences for good in the community.

The lawyer. The profession of law includes almost as many different aspects as there are aspects in life. The lawyer is a person skilled in the law; and law, as we have seen, deals with conduct. In the words of a famous jurist, "The law reaches in every direction, touching every branch of knowledge and life." The practice of law, therefore, enters into all human activities and relationships, both public and private, both industrial and social.

Legal work has two aspects, office practice and court practice. Office practice is usually of a private character; here a lawyer is occupied in drawing up a contract or a will, in examining a title to property, in preparing articles of incorporation for a business concern, in serving as trustee for an estate, or in giving advice to a client. In court practice a lawyer represents his client before judge or jury, defending him against criminal charges and damage suits, or bringing action in his behalf against another individual or concern. The chief duty of a lawyer in both office practice and court practice is to serve as adviser or counselor to a client, keeping the latter free from legal difficulties if possible, but guarding his interests if trouble arises.

So complicated is modern law that specialization in the profession is common. In small communities and even in large cities there are some general practitioners who do all sorts of legal work. The majority of lawyers, however,

find it profitable to confine their efforts to a single division of the law or at most to several related divisions.

The chief lines of legal specialization lie in five fields: criminal law; the law of torts, or injuries other than to the person; real-estate law; patent law; and corporation law. Criminal lawyers confine their practice to the defense of persons accused of crime. Tort lawyers represent plaintiffs or defendants in damage suits. Real-estate lawyers limit their activities to the legal aspects of land titles. Patent lawyers help clients to secure patents and defend their rights against infringement. Corporation lawyers specialize in business law, advise clients on legal questions, and represent the concerns that employ them in legal controversies. The work of corporation lawyers usually includes all kinds of law.

Qualifications for the law. First of all stands honesty. Like the physician, the lawyer occupies a position of confidence and trust. He must be loyal to his client and at the same time must have a keen desire for justice. He must be a man of integrity.

Sound judgment is a second quality essential in the legal profession. A lawyer must be able to analyze complex situations and to draw proper inferences. He needs to be able to express his ideas forcefully and convincingly. He must be a clear, logical thinker, able to concentrate wholly on the problem at hand.

Finally, the profession of law demands strength and courage. A lawyer is pledged to defend the cause of the weak, the helpless, and the oppressed. He must uphold the right, regardless of opposition. Since much of his work is in the nature of a battle, he must be able to fight, and fight hard.

As a basis for the study of law the better law schools require a four-year high-school course and at least two years of college; the entrance requirement in a few institutions is graduation from college. In most instances a course

in law requires three years of study; in some instances, four years. Colleges and universities in many cities now offer law courses at night. Before a person is admitted to the bar he must pass a state examination.

Disadvantages and opportunities in law. It is generally agreed that the legal profession is overcrowded. The last census reported 122,519 lawyers, judges, and justices in the country, 1738 of whom were women. In other words, the United States has one lawyer for every 900 of its population; European countries are said to average one lawyer to every 5000 people.

The crowded condition in the legal profession has often caused attorneys to supplement their earnings from the practice of law by selling life insurance and by engaging in real-estate transactions. Many attorneys have dropped law entirely and have entered business. Lawyers who remain in the profession and prove successful generally earn from $5000 to $8000 a year, while the annual income of outstanding attorneys like Mr. Root or Mr. Hughes often reaches several hundred thousand dollars.

Of all professions the practice of law offers the best opportunity for entrance into political office. More than two thirds of our presidents have been lawyers. In addition, most of the members of Congress and of the state legislatures have been trained in the law. The same is true of many of our governors, mayors, and city aldermen. With rare exceptions the judges in our courts as well as all government attorneys also belong to the legal profession.

Social workers. Wherever there are social centers, settlement houses, institutional churches, charitable associations, or public agencies engaged in helping the sick and the poor or in providing opportunities for recreation and education, social workers are in demand. In addition, large mercantile and industrial establishments need trained social workers to take charge of the gymnasiums, athletic grounds, and welfare agencies which such concerns have provided for

their employees, and to serve as leaders and instructors in the social and educational enterprises frequently undertaken by modern business organizations.

Social work embraces many specialized occupations. Prominent in the group are such workers as superintendents, directors, and executive secretaries of settlement houses, recreation parks, playground associations, and summer

OFF FOR AN OUTING

Welfare work, especially among children, is repaid with more than money. These children would probably never see the country if it were not for the settlement house which arranged their outing.

camps. Other expert workers are the investigators and probation officers who coöperate with the juvenile courts, visiting nurses who teach and demonstrate health safeguards in the home, child-welfare workers who look after neglected and handicapped children, and teachers who give instruction in settlement houses and institutional churches.

Many colleges and universities offer courses to prepare students for social work and to fit them for positions of responsibility. Settlement houses and community agencies

provide practical training and experience to develop workers for the lower positions. The salaries of the ablest and best-trained executives sometimes run as high as $10,000 a year, but in the majority of instances they do not exceed $4000 or $5000. The great body of social workers receive from $25 to $50 a week. As in most professions, the main compensation lies in the work itself.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What are "social ills"? Mention two that lawyers help to solve; two that social workers help to remove. In what respects is a physician a solver of social ills? Explain.

2. Mention a situation in which a business man might want a lawyer's advice; one in which an immigrant might need assistance from a social worker.

3. Mention three advantages in settling a dispute or controversy out of court. When such is done, would a lawyer's assistance be needed? Explain.

4. Name three prominent lawyers in your community. Is their work largely office practice or court practice? Do they deal largely with civil cases or criminal cases? (Re-read pages 686–687.)

5. Name five qualifications which in your opinion are needed by social workers. Be able to defend each trait in your list.

6. Why are requirements for the practice of law less severe than requirements for the practice of medicine? Why is the legal profession overcrowded? Should the overcrowded condition prevent one from going in for law? Explain.

7. Make a list of the presidents who were lawyers by profession. Why is the practice of law a doorway to public office?

Section III. Furnishing Entertainment

Public entertainment. Every year Americans spend hundreds of millions of dollars for sport and entertainment. Part of the expenditure goes for golf grounds, baseball

parks, theaters, moving-picture houses, and stadiums. Part of it is for admission to football contests, baseball games, track meets, and other athletic events. Much of it goes to performers who entertain the public on the stage and in the concert hall.

Actors and musicians are the most important professional entertainers in the country. The actors, who number about 30,000, are divided almost equally between men and women. Musicians and teachers of music number over 130,000, three fifths of whom are women. Thousands of showmen, dancers, acrobats, radio announcers, producers of plays, and professional baseball-players and football-players also make their living by entertaining the public.

The stage. Work on the stage varies widely in quality and requirements. It ranges from "the stunts" of the performer in vaudeville to the work of talented actors in Shakespearean plays. It includes comedy, farce, and tragedy. It embraces the work of both the actor in the movies and the actor on the legitimate stage. High-class actors and dancers are artists. Their profession demands natural talent and long, hard, painstaking preparation. To attain distinction, they deny themselves pleasure and devote themselves to their task with a singleness of purpose unsurpassed in any other vocation.

Encouraged by success in amateur plays, young people sometimes conclude that they have genuine dramatic talent. Occasionally they are correct in their belief and can well afford to begin the hard grind that leads to success on the stage by enrolling in a school of dramatic art. Much more frequently, however, they are deceived by the too generous praise of their friends and, in case they go on the stage or into moving pictures, soon discover their mistake, and drop the work or increase the ranks of mediocre performers of whom there are already too large a number. Probably fewer than one in a thousand of those who take up acting become theatrical stars.

Although the stage sometimes brings large financial returns, the income of most actors is moderate and uncertain. In spite of careful training theatrical productions often fail. The performers then find themselves facing hardships in the middle of the season. No one should take up the profession of acting until he has talked over the

GRAND OPERA

Singers in grand opera must not only be of the highest order, but must also know how to act. In this performance over seventy-five people were on the stage at one time and a full orchestra furnished the musical accompaniment.

matter with competent advisers and unless he is prepared to receive most of his compensation in the satisfaction all true artists find in their work rather than in their wealth.

Music. Music has charmed mankind since the beginning of time. More and more it offers a field of work containing many different aspects and opportunities. In orchestras and on the concert stage, in grand opera and in church choirs, as organists and as teachers, worthy and well-rewarded employment may be found by persons who are qualified and trained for their work.

The greatest opportunities in the musical profession are found, of course, in grand opera and in public concerts, but only persons with superior natural talents can expect to excel in such fields. Even then genius alone will not win distinction; study and training, extending usually from childhood on, are essential. In addition, constant application and practice are necessary. The famous pianist Paderewski is said to have remarked on one occasion, "If I miss a day of practice, I notice it; if I miss two days, my wife notices it; if I miss three days, the public notices it."

The serious study of music requires much more than a melodious voice or technical skill in playing a piano or other musical instrument. A musician must be a master of musical theory, he must understand harmony, and he must know the history of music. To interpret great musical compositions correctly, he must be acquainted with literature, painting, history. He must be familiar with other musical instruments in addition to the one in which he may be specializing.

If you decide to go in for music, do not count upon concert work or grand opera alone. Even the greatest musicians often devote part of their time to giving lessons, to directing musical clubs, and to composing selections. Prepare, then, to make the basis of your income by training choirs, playing in orchestras, supervising music in the public schools, or serving as organist in churches or moving-picture theaters. In entering upon a musical career, as in going in for politics, have two strings to your bow.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Explain what it means to have two strings to one's bow in entering upon a musical career. Is it equally desirable to be similarly equipped if one intends to go on the stage? Give reasons.

2. Does it pay to study music or dramatic art even if one does not intend to become a professional musician or actor? Explain.

3. Tell whether the following are engaged in professions: acrobats; circus clowns; members of the New York Giants; radio announcers; players in the Boston Symphony Orchestra. Give reasons in each instance.

4. Why do many boys and girls want to go on the stage? How can one find whether he is fitted to become an actor? List five qualifications that are necessary for success in acting.

5. Tell about the training needed by a professional musician. Include the following items: length; character; cost; disadvantages; opportunities.

6. Name your favorite actor (1) in the movies, (2) on the legitimate stage. Write a paragraph about one of the two you have named, telling about the characteristics you like in him or her.

7. *Reports for volunteers:*
   a. Jennie Lind, the Swedish nightingale.
   b. Edwin Booth, the actor.
   c. My favorite grand-opera singer.
   d. How moving pictures are made.

Section IV. Providing Information and Inspiration

Enlighteners. The last workers to be considered in this chapter are writers, artists, and clergymen. Their main service is to provide useful information, to explain the world we live in, and to arouse and develop in us all an appreciation of beauty and an aspiration for the nobler things of life. They also play an influential part in solving social ills and in furnishing valuable means of recreation.

Writers. Authors write to inform, to entertain, and to interpret. For the most part their ideas take form in essays, plays, short stories, narratives, scenarios, poems, editorials, novels, textbooks, histories, and biographies. They write as a rule for newspapers, magazines, moving-picture companies, and publishing houses. They are employed by the week, month, or year, as is the case with most newspaper men; or they write independently, and

submit their work, whenever it is in finished form, to magazines, newspapers, and publishing firms, receiving pay by the word, inch, column, or article, or at a given percentage, or royalty, of the amount which the publisher receives from the sale of their works. The variety in the nature of their writing, in the conditions under which they labor, and in the manner of their compensation

NEWSPAPER WORK

The school paper offers an opportunity to learn most phases of newspaper work. These girls are looking after the mechanical features — the typesetting, the make-up, and the printing.

causes wide differences in the income of authors and in the special qualities and training they need for their work.

Newspaper writing is done largely by reporters, rewrite men, special contributors, and editors. Reporters gather the news of the day; rewrite men edit and revise stories turned in by the reporters; special contributors furnish feature articles; editors express the views of the paper on the news and movements of the day, endeavor to influence public opinion, direct the work of the reporters, and determine the "make-up" of the paper and the space and

emphasis given to the various news events. The chief qualifications for newspaper work are a "nose for news," courage, accuracy of observation, quickness in thought and action, a retentive memory, pleasing manners, and ability to write clearly and interestingly. Writers in other fields also need the foregoing qualities, but as a rule they work under less pressure; instead of the events of the day they have as their main stock in trade their own ideas and emotions growing out of their own observation, experience, and study.

THE ARTIST

The world is full of beauty and poetry which we often do not see until the painter, the sculptor, or the writer reveals it to us.

The foundation for authorship is almost always learned in school, but skill and success come only from practice. If you wish to become a writer, seize every opportunity to write. Contribute regularly to the school paper, write articles for the school annual, send news items to a daily paper in the community, get a job as reporter during vacation. And do not fail to secure a wide, thorough education in high school and in a college of journalism.

Art. As used here, the word is limited to the work of the sculptor, the painter, and the commercial artist. The sculptor is an artist who shapes bronze or marble into forms

of beauty. The painter is an artist who creates loveliness in line, color, and grouping, usually with pen or brush. The commercial artist is one who finds a place for his skill in business and manufacturing. To sculptors, painters, and commercial artists we owe both inspiration and enjoyment.

Art work falls into two main divisions: first, the fine arts, which are usually ends in themselves; and second, the commercial arts, which are generally means to an end. Examples of the fine arts are statues by Michelangelo, Rodin, or Saint Gaudens and paintings by Raphael, Rembrandt, Reynolds, or Gainsborough. Examples of commercial art are designs on chinaware or furniture and illustrations in books and magazines.

Success in the fine arts requires exceptional talent, wide education, and years of study in the best art schools of America and Europe. It should be undertaken only after conferring with skilled artists or with capable teachers of art. Commercial art, also, requires talent, artistic taste, and manual skill. For most persons who like to draw and model, it offers attractive and varied opportunities. Capable industrial artists are in demand as designers of book covers and jewelry, as makers of patterns for rugs, dress goods, and wall paper, as modelers of novelties for manufactured articles, such as automobile-radiator caps, and as illustrators of periodicals, catalogues, newspapers, and books. Training for commercial art is often given in high school and may be continued under private teachers, in college, or in schools of art. Many workers in the fine arts also engage at times in commercial art.

The clergy. "Not to be ministered unto, but to minister" is the chief aim of all true priests, ministers, and rabbis. To a degree unsurpassed by any other profession, the members of the clergy devote their time and efforts to the service of their fellow men.

Although there are variations in the requirements of different religious denominations, the work of most clergymen

consists ordinarily of (1) the conduct of public worship, (2) the performance of religious ceremonies, such as baptism and marriage, (3) the leadership of church activities, and (4) the visiting of members of the congregation and community when need arises.

In addition to those parts of the service that are printed in books, public worship usually includes the delivery of a sermon, which gives the minister an opportunity to inspire the members of his congregation to better lives and which requires from him careful study and preparation. The ceremonial side of his work — leading the responsive readings, conducting a baptismal service, or officiating at a wedding — can be easily and quickly learned, but that is only a small part of his real work. Leadership in church activities demands much thought as well as high executive ability, while pastoral work makes heavy requirements upon a minister's time, sympathies, and strength.

To enter the ministry, one should first of all have a religious urge, or "a call" to the work, as people expressed it in the old days. He should also have a sincere love for all mankind and an earnest desire to do them good. Finally, he should be an all-round man, friendly in his personal contacts, fearless in support of righteousness, able in speech, calm in temperament, high in ideals, inspiring in leadership.

A wide, rich education is essential for success as a clergyman. Many denominations require graduation from high school, college, and theological seminary as a condition for admission to the ministry. The minister, it has been said, should know something about everything and everything about something. Certainly, he should understand what scholarly work is and should be on his guard against loose, inaccurate statements in the pulpit or elsewhere. In addition to a mastery of theology, ethics, philosophy, religious history, and public speaking, a minister needs in particular an acquaintance with science, literature, sociology, economics, education, and general history.

The ministry does not offer material wealth, the salaries of most clergymen ranging from $1000 to $1500 a year. Nor does the profession promise permanency of residence, many ministers moving from one place to another at frequent intervals. But the vocation does provide steady work, the ministry being one of the few occupations that are not overcrowded. It also offers a wide variety of experience; for the minister has contacts with all kinds of people and problems, and his responsibilities from day to day are never quite the same. Most important of all, the ministry is a vocation of power and influence; for the clergyman probably comes into closer touch with his fellow human beings in the great crises of life than do the members of any other profession, with the possible exception of physicians.

The rewards of the minister do not often take the form of money, but they are nevertheless real. He builds his life into the lives of others. His chief compensation is in his work. He feels as did David Livingstone, the famous missionary to Africa, who on one occasion wrote to a friend:

> People talk of the sacrifice I have made in spending so much of my life in Africa. Is that a sacrifice which brings its own blest reward in healthful activity, the consciousness of good, peace of mind, and a bright hope of a glorious destiny hereafter? Away with the word in such a view, and with such a thought. I never made a sacrifice.

Summary. Professions are occupations that require long training, thorough knowledge, and sound judgment. Of those that are devoted primarily to public service the most important are teaching, medicine, law, music, art, and the ministry. Our physical ills are cared for chiefly by the physician, the dentist, the pharmacist, and the nurse. From the lawyer, the judge, and the social-welfare worker we secure aid in solving social ills. To the musician and actor we look for entertainment. The writer, the artist, and the

clergyman provide us with information, enjoyment, and inspiration. All the professions contribute to the enrichment of life. Professional work demands ability of a high order, necessitates thorough and extended preparation, and offers wide opportunities for service. Persons who feel drawn toward the professions should make their choice only after analyzing their own qualifications and tastes and after securing the counsel of friends and competent advisers.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Tell how writers contribute to each line of work described in this chapter. If possible, name authors and titles of books you have read that contribute as suggested.

2. What seem the chief differences between the fine arts and the commercial arts? Are both professions? Explain.

3. Name the personal qualities that are most essential to a minister. Can such qualities be developed? Explain. What is the most important work of a minister?

4. Of your present studies, which are of value to a pupil who wishes to become a writer? an artist? a clergyman? Give reasons in each instance.

5. Mention three important differences in the work of a Y.M.C.A. secretary and that of a minister; three important similarities.

6. Mention the kind of writing you would prefer to do if you were going to make authorship your profession. Which have wider influence — teachers or newspaper men? What makes you think so?

7. Which profession discussed in this chapter most resembles a business? Which is most like a trade? Give facts supporting your answer in each instance.

THINGS TO DO

1. Interview a dentist, a pharmacist, a nurse, a lawyer, an actor, a musician, a writer, an artist, or a clergyman. Ask the person you interview to list the attractions of his profession, the disagreeable features connected with it, and the training and education it requires.

2. Ask a physician whom you know to name the personal qualities which he thinks most essential for the practice of medicine. Exchange answers in class, tabulating the results.

3. Volunteers offer to write to (1) a medical school, (2) a school of pharmacy, (3) a school of art, (4) a theological seminary, (5) a school of journalism, and (6) a school of music, requesting a copy of the latest catalogue of each, or secure copies in the school office. Report the entrance requirements of each institution, the tuition charges, and the studies to be taken by entering students.

4. Visit the office of a dentist, listing all equipment you see. Then visit the study of a clergyman, making a list of the equipment you notice. Write three conclusions based on your two lists.

5. Bring to class pictures of statues or paintings that you admire, tell about the artists and their chief works, and post the pictures for a few days on the bulletin board.

6. Invite one member of each profession discussed in this chapter to give a short talk to the class about the opportunities and requirements in his line of work. Before each talk prepare a list of questions to ask the speaker.

7. Count (1) the physicians and (2) the dentists in your community or neighborhood and divide the population by each of the figures you secure. Draw conclusions concerning the need for additional physicians and dentists in your vicinity.

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "A Printing-Office," A. Bennett, *The Worker and his Work*, 208–217.
2. "Augustus Saint Gaudens, Greatest American Sculptor," *Heroes of Progress*, 157–167.
3. "Edwin Austin Abbey, Illustrator and Painter," *ibid.*, 208–216.
4. "The Aërial Acrobat," *Careers of Danger and Daring*, 255–292.
5. "One Woman's Work," Lady H. Somerset, *America's Message*, 242–245.
6. "Making a Newspaper," W. F. Rocheleau, *In Our Times*, 139–145.
7. "The Art of Cro-Magnon Man," *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 19–23.
8. "Books and How they are Made," *ibid.*, 249–259.
9. * "Thomas Nast," *ibid.*, 470–480.
10. "Alexis Carrel, Surgeon," *Modern Great Americans*, 63–76.

11. "Samuel Langhorne Clemens (Mark Twain), Humorist," *ibid.*, 77–91.
12. "Theodore William Richards, Chemist," *ibid.*, 191–203.
13. * "John Singer Sargent, Artist," *ibid.*, 234–247.
14. * "Henry van Dyke, Author," *ibid.*, 248–260.
15. "Serving the Public," *Readings in Community Life*, Part V, section 7.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. * *Doctor and Patients*, by Harold M. Hays. Cornhill.
2. *The Training of Wild Animals*, by Frank C. Bostock. Century.
3. *Adventures in Journalism*, by P. H. Gibbs. Harper.
4. * *The Young Man and Journalism*, by Chester S. Lord. Macmillan.
5. *How to become a Trained Nurse*, by J. Hodson. Abbott.
6. * *The Training and Rewards of a Physician*, by Richard C. Cabot. Lippincott.
7. *Problems of the Actor*, by L. Calvert. Holt.
8. *Life on the Stage*, by F. C. Harriott. Doubleday.
9. *Training for the Stage*, by Arthur Hornblow. Lippincott.
10. * *The Romance of Preaching*, by C. S. Horne. Revell.
11. *New Opportunities in the Ministry*, by F. Lynch. Revell.
12. *Training and Rewards of a Lawyer*, by D. H. Stone. Lippincott.
13. *Medicine as a Profession*, by D. W. and E. W. Weaver. Barnes.
14. * *In One Man's Life*, by Albert B. Paine. Harper.
15. *Opportunities in Newspaper Work*, by James M. Lee. Harper.
16. * *The Young Man and the Law*, by Simeon E. Baldwin. Macmillan.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *Katrinka*, by Helen Haskell. Dutton.
2. *Toby Tyler*, by James Otis. Harper.
3. *Jan of the Windmill*, by Juliana H. Ewing. Macmillan.
4. * *Master Skylark*, by John Bennett. Century.
5. *The Fugitive Parson*, by Norman Duncan. Revell.
6. *The Bellamy Trial*, by Frances N. Hart. Doubleday.

CHAPTER XXXII

SUCCEEDING IN ONE'S WORK

Always bear in mind that your own resolution to succeed is more important than any other one thing. Work, work, work is the secret of success.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

If a man write a better book, preach a better sermon, or make a better mouse-trap than his neighbor, though he build his house in the woods, the world will make a beaten path to his door. — ELBERT HUBBARD

SECTION I. GETTING A JOB

Choose an occupation. In the old days boys and girls had little opportunity to choose their life's work. They were usually expected to follow the occupations of their parents and grandparents. If the father was a blacksmith, the son generally became a blacksmith, too; if the father was a farmer, the son also became a tiller of the soil. In similar manner girls usually became housewives like their mothers; indeed, few other occupations were open to women.

But such conditions have changed. Today all lines of work may be entered by anyone, regardless of the occupation of his ancestors or the class of society into which he may have been born. Opportunity to follow any vocation is limited only by one's ability, preparation, and character. In other respects the doors to all occupations stand wide open. What, then, do you intend to take up as your life's work? A choice of occupation is, of course, the beginning step in getting a job.

Your selection of a vocation should depend, first of all, upon your own tastes and interests; to go in for work which you do not like is to head straight for failure and

unhappiness. Your selection should be determined, in the second place, by a comparison of your abilities with the qualifications needed in the occupation you have in mind; the two should agree in large measure or you should begin at once to develop the traits you lack.

Choose, then, an occupation; don't drift into one. What the occupation may be is of small consequence if it is honorable and if it is fitted for you and you are fitted for it. As Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes says, "Any calling is great if pursued greatly."

Get ready. Prepare for your work. Take all the education you can afford; finish high school; then go to college. Business men no longer say, as did Horace Greeley, "Of all horned cattle, deliver me from the college graduate." Other things being equal, an educated person always gets the job.

If you cannot attend college, continue your education by going to night school or by taking home-study courses. No matter what work you may undertake, you can do it better if you are well informed. Many a person has failed to get a position because he had no intellectual background. Now, as never before, knowledge is power! Said Hamilton W. Mabie:

> If I were a young man or a young woman going out into the world today, I would not dare to go out unless I had given myself every educational opportunity, unless I had made myself absolute master of the things I wanted to do.

Secure experience. Seize every opportunity to try your hand in your chosen vocation. Take Saturdays, or time after school, or part of your summer vacations to learn through direct contact something about your future occupation. If you wish to become a pharmacist, work as an errand boy for a time at a drugstore; if you desire to teach, try giving instruction to a younger brother or sister or to one of the neighbor's children; if you want to enter

business, get a job for a while as a messenger in a bank or as a clerk in a small store; if you intend to enter a trade, serve as helper in odd hours to a worker in the industry toward which you are attracted. Take a prevocational, or tryout, course, in school in the line of work you plan to enter. Such experience, no matter how limited, is always valued by employers and will be of great help to you in securing a job.

AN EMPLOYMENT AGENCY

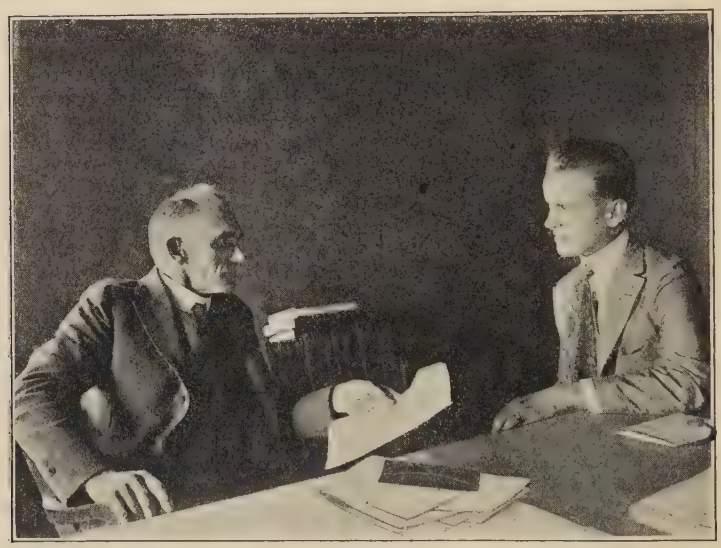
Positions may sometimes be secured through agencies which bring employers and persons desiring work together, receiving a fee in return for their services. Care should be used to patronize only such agencies as have a high reputation for honest dealing.

Cultivate a winning personality. Be pleasant to the people you meet. Avoid grouchiness, grumbling, and faultfinding. Practice cheerfulness. Remember that "it takes fifty-two muscles to make a frown, while it requires only fourteen to make a smile." No employer wants sulky employees.

Be friendly, then, but respectful; pleasant, but not familiar. Make good manners a habit; few assets are of greater value in the workaday world. A cheerful countenance, a smile, and a winning manner go far in securing one a job.

Take pains with your appearance. Be neat. Keep your face and hands clean. Avoid uncombed hair and dirty finger nails. Keep your clothes brushed and your shoes shined. Remember that "the apparel oft proclaims the man" and that an applicant for a job is judged first of all by his looks.

Apply for a job in a businesslike way. Find where your kind of work is needed. Consult your relatives, friends, and



APPLYING FOR A POSITION

Many concerns require a person desiring a position to fill out an application blank, giving age, education, experience, ambitions, and a number of references. Some time later the applicant has a personal interview with the employment manager.

acquaintances. Read the "Help Wanted" advertisements in the daily papers, trade journals, and business magazines. Enroll with two or three reliable employment agencies. Visit the personnel departments of the concerns in which you wish employment and file an application for a position.

When you learn of a vacancy, apply by letter or in person, as the employer indicates. If you apply by letter, be sure to write neatly and correctly, on good stationery, with

pen and ink, and in a clear, readable hand. Express your ideas simply and accurately, giving the employer a brief, definite account of your age, education, and experience. Mention also the reasons why you want to work for the employer to whom you are applying. Make your letter distinctive. Finally, give the names and addresses of a number of persons who know you well, and inclose one or two letters of recommendation.

If you apply in person, take especial pains with your appearance, but do not overdress. During the interview be frank and pleasant. Look the employer or the personnel director right in the eye. Listen to him carefully and answer his questions in a straightforward manner. Find out what is expected. Tell your education and experience clearly and concisely. Submit your school record, your recommendations, and your references. If you secure the position, express your thanks and your determination to do your best in the job.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. If you were an employer, what qualities should you desire in an applicant for a job? In answering the question use as an illustration any industry or profession you wish and any position in the industry or profession.

2. Why is the choice of an occupation more difficult nowadays than a century ago? Name two important differences between present-day vocations and vocations before the Industrial Revolution.

3. What is a prevocational, or tryout, course? Explain its value. Name prevocational courses offered in your school.

4. Mention the kinds of work which you have done that you could offer as experience in applying for a job.

5. How does "the apparel oft proclaim the man"? Name ten occupations in which dress is especially important; five in which personality counts heavily. What is "personality"?

6. Tell three things you have done to prepare for the vocation you expect to enter; mention four things you expect to do.

7. Name the chief employment agencies in your vicinity. What other means of securing jobs does your community contain?

8. Mention tasks that you have done alone; with someone else. Mention work that you have planned for others; that others have planned for you.

9. Relate an experience, if possible, you once had when applying for a job.

END

Section II. Advancing on the Job

Make a good start. Look upon the first day of work as an opportunity to lay the foundations for success. You then start a new bundle of habits; and all of us are what our habits make us. So be on time when you start work. Give close attention to explanations and directions. Be alert and ready for any task. Try to anticipate what needs to be done. Begin with a determination to master the job. Remember that "first impressions are lasting."

Apply yourself. Concentrate on your work. Give the best that's in you. Remember that your time, thought, and energy belong to your employer. Do your work with thoroughness, attending carefully to details. Said Michelangelo, "Trifles make perfection, and perfection is no trifle."

Be loyal to your employer. Do all you can to make the business or enterprise in which he is engaged a success. If you cannot honestly give your best service, get another job. "Watch your work, not the clock; a long day's work makes a long day short." Don't be always hunting for easier employment; when you find your bent, stick to it. Keep in mind Lincoln's advice to his lazy, ne'er-do-well half-brother:

> If you intend to go to work, there is no better place than right where you are. If you do not intend to go to work, you cannot get along anywhere. Squirming and crawling about from place to place can do no good.

Earn more than your pay. "Would you rather be overpaid or underpaid?" a large group of boys and young men were

once asked. To the first part of the question, "Would you rather be overpaid?" every lad but one raised his hand. To the second part, "Would you rather be underpaid?" only one boy lifted his hand. When asked his reason, this boy replied:

"Well, some time ago five of us boys were at work in the office. I was no better, perhaps not so good, as the others.

NIGHT SCHOOL

The road to promotion lies in the thorough doing of one's work and in adequate preparation for the job ahead. The public library and evening classes offer rich opportunities for all kinds of study and training.

One day the boss came in (there was a vacancy in one of the junior clerkships) and appointed me to the position. 'I'm appointing you to this job rather than one of the other boys,' he said, 'because you're the only one who's been doing more than he was paid for.' Now, if I was doing more than I was paid for, then I was underpaid, wasn't I? And if I hadn't been underpaid, I wouldn't have got the junior clerkship, would I? Well, then it pays to be underpaid, doesn't it? And I mean to keep on being underpaid."

This lad had discovered the secret of winning promotion. Don't be afraid to earn more than your pay. In the words of Mr. Schwab, the famous steel captain, "The easiest way to qualify for the job just ahead is to work a little harder than anyone else on the job you are holding down." Or, as an English manufacturer told his employees, "Give me

ABILITY + WORK

By putting behind his genius the driving power of grim, tireless work, Thomas A. Edison became one of the greatest inventors of his day. After years of patient, careful training and experience Charles A. Lindbergh flew alone across the ocean and took two continents by storm. These two men, one young and one full of years, won the respect of the world, not so much for talent as for achievement and character.

more than I expect, and I will give you more than you expect; I can afford to increase your pay if you increase my profits." Certainly, as William Feather says, "If you work for others as you would like others to work for you, you'll never be out of a job."

Prepare for the job above. To do more than you are paid to do, as we have just seen, is the first step toward promotion. The second step is to get ready for the position that lies just ahead of you. Mr. H. P. Davison, who rose

from the position of messenger boy to the presidency of one of the world's greatest banks, explained his success as follows: "If I had any system in my labor, it was first to do my own work; second, to teach the fellow below me how to take my place; third, to learn how to fill the position ahead of me."

When at work, then, study your own job and the job above you. Help the person below you. Jot down important observations in a notebook. Continue your study at night; take suitable courses in evening school or by correspondence; read the best books on your occupation; study the trade journals or professional magazines that are devoted to your line of work. Now and then suggest changes that may be of advantage to your employer. Grow on the job.

HEALTH IS WEALTH!

Success in work as in play depends first of all on health. Exercise in the out-of-doors, nourishing food, sufficient sleep, and regular habits bring strength, energy, and good spirits.

Coöperate with your fellow workers. Do your part and help them to do their part. Be friendly and considerate. Show your associates the same courtesy that you show your employer or the public. True politeness makes no exceptions.

Be unselfish. "That," said President Eliot, "is the first and the final commandment for those who would be useful, and happy in their usefulness." One of the finest features of Mr. Davison's plan, quoted above, was the second part, "to teach the fellow below me how to take my place." Coöperate.

Guard your health. It is one of your chief assets. No employer wants sickly employees. Avoid worry; most of the troubles we fret about never come. Be regular in your habits. Take proper exercise, eat plenty of good food, avoid extremes, get an abundance of fresh air. Don't neglect your sleep. Said the English manufacturer quoted above: "It is none of my business what you do at night. But if dissipation affects what you do the next day, and you do half as much as I demand, you'll last half as long as you hoped." Take care of your health.

Be interested in your work. Follow the advice the circus ringmaster gave a beginner who was trying to jump over a high trapeze: "Throw your *heart* over first, John, and your heels will follow."[1] Interest grows by what it feeds upon. The more you learn about the industry, trade, or profession in which you are engaged, the more fascinating it will become.

Be a good citizen. Do your part in the community. Help to carry on its work, bear its burdens, and solve its problems. Develop in yourself the qualities set forth in the Moral Code for Youth.[2] Make it the aim of your life.

If I want to be a happy, useful citizen I must have:

1. Courage and hope
2. Wisdom
3. Industry and good habits
4. Knowledge and usefulness
5. Truth and honesty
6. Healthfulness and cleanliness
7. Helpfulness and unselfishness
8. Charity
9. Humility and reverence
10. Faith and responsibility

[1] C. H. Ernst, *What shall I Be?* ix.

[2] *Collier's* (January 17, 1925).

Summary. To enter the world of work with the greatest likelihood of success, you must, first, choose an occupation wisely; second, prepare thoroughly for your work; third, gain preliminary experience; fourth, be neat and painstaking in your personal appearance; fifth, cultivate a winning personality; and sixth, make a businesslike application for a position. Once you are launched in the work of the world, your success will depend largely on your observance of the following rules:

1. Begin well.
2. Apply yourself diligently.
3. Earn more than your pay.
4. Grow on the job.
5. Coöperate with your associates.
6. Take care of your health.
7. Love your work.
8. Be a good citizen.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Relate an experience which shows that "first impressions are lasting." Mention five things a beginner should be sure to do on the day he begins work with a new employer. Name the industry or occupation you have in mind.

2. Write a definition of success and name five persons whom you regard as highly successful, pointing out the respects in which each has succeeded. Is success in work or business the same as success in life? Explain.

3. What does it mean to earn more than one is paid? Are physicians, ministers, and teachers generally underpaid or overpaid? Explain. Tell about an experience when you were either underpaid or overpaid. How can one know whether he is paid too much or too little?

4. Explain this quotation: "A long day's work makes a long day short."

5. Mention the occupation you expect to enter or one in which you are interested. Then name six ways by which a person begin-

ning work in the occupation can "grow on the job." Tell about someone you know who "grew on the job," describing the methods he used.

6. How can a person who dislikes an occupation become interested in it? Make your answer definite, applying it to yourself on the supposition that you come to dislike the occupation you think of entering.

7. How are good citizenship and good work related? Explain.

8. What element in success is brought out in each of the quotations at the head of the chapter? Explain.

THINGS TO DO

1. Choose three committees of two pupils each to secure application blanks from three local concerns employing large numbers of workers. Try to get enough copies to supply each member of the class with one. After filling all blanks, read answers aloud, discussing points on which members of the class differ.

2. Write a letter of application in reply to a "Help Wanted" advertisement which interests you. Paste the advertisement at the top of the letter. Exchange letters, each member of the class writing a comment about the letter he receives, pointing out its merits and suggesting possible improvements. Talk over doubtful points.

3. Suppose you are an employer of workers in the industry or profession you plan to enter. On such supposition, prepare a statement of the personal qualities, preparation, and experience you should want in your employees or assistants.

4. Dramatize a scene depicting a person applying for a job. Select one pupil to represent the employer or personnel-manager and another pupil to represent the candidate for the position. Members of the class may offer suggestions for the dialogue.

5. Write a "Position Wanted" advertisement for work in the occupation which appeals most to you. Make the advertisement as attractive as possible, but do not let it run over sixty words. From a local newspaper find what such an advertisement would cost, provided it were published in three issues of the paper.

6. Invite a personnel-manager or an employer in your community to tell the class how he selects employees. Be prepared to ask him ten or twelve questions.

7. Interview three successful persons to find how they began work and the main steps by which they advanced in their vocations. Before making the calls, work out in class a list of questions to ask the persons whom you intend to interview.

8. Read to your classmates the most important or most interesting chapter or section of your book, "My Life Work" (see page 550).

BOOKS TO READ

I. Classroom Readings

1. "Keep on Working," R. E. Burton, *The Worker and his Work*, 39–41.
2. "Charles Goodyear, a Man who Persevered," *Heroes of Progress*, 30–38.
3. "Industry versus Opportunity," R. W. Babson, *America's Message*, 131–134.
4. * "How I carried the Message to García," A. S. Rowan, *ibid.*, 165–195.
5. "Carry On!" R. W. Service, *ibid.*, 265–266.
6. * "Genius and Work," C. M. Schwab, *In Our Times*, 333–335.
7. "Robert Edwin Peary, Arctic Explorer," *Modern Great Americans*, 162–175.
8. "Problems in Personality," *Fiber and Finish*, 141–150.
9. * "Fiber and Finish," *ibid.*, 155–163.
10. "Ambition," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, I, 107.
11. * "The Value of Time," *ibid.*, 3503.
12. "Succeeding in One's Work," *Readings in Community Life*, Part V, section 8.

II. Home Readings

A. Biography, History, Science, Travel, Essay

1. * *Acres of Diamonds*, by Russell H. Conwell. Harper.
2. * *More than Conquerors*, by Ariadne Gilbert. Century.
3. *Up from Slavery*, by Booker T. Washington. Doubleday.
4. *Famous Leaders of Industry*, by Edwin Wildman. Page.
5. *The Autobiography of Andrew Carnegie*, by Andrew Carnegie. Houghton.
6. *The Thoughts of Youth*, by Samuel S. Drury. Macmillan.
7. *How to Get a Position and How to Keep It*, by S. Roland Hall. Funk.
8. *Building a Career*, by E. W. Weaver. Association Press.
9. *The Making of a Man*, by J. H. Appel. Seltzer.

10. *Making the Most of Ourselves,* by C. D. Wilson. McClurg.
11. *From the Bottom Up,* by Alexander Irvine. Doubleday.
12. *The Book of the Long Trail,* by Henry J. Newbolt. Longmans.
13. *Poor Boys who became Famous,* by Sarah K. Bolton. Crowell.
14. *Boyhood Stories of Famous Men,* by Katherine D. Cather. Century.
15. * *Winning their Way,* by John T. Faris. Stokes.
16. *How they Succeeded,* by Orison S. Marden. Crowell.
17. *Heroes of Progress,* by Eva M. Tappan. Houghton.
18. *Your Job,* by Harold Whitehead. Biddle.
19. *Training for Efficiency,* by Orison S. Marden. Crowell.
20. * *Succeeding with what you Have,* by Charles M. Schwab. Century.

B. Stories, Poems, Plays

1. *Working through at Lincoln High,* by Joseph Gollomb. Macmillan.
2. *Billy Barnicoat,* by George MacDonald. Dutton.
3. * *The Man from Glengarry,* by Ralph Connor. Revell.
4. * *The Conquest of Canaan,* by Booth Tarkington. Harper.
5. *Pick, Shovel, and Pluck,* by A. Russell Bond. Scientific American.
6. *The Rise of Silas Lapham,* by William D. Howells. Houghton.

APPENDIX A

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

PREAMBLE

WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. CONGRESS

All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.[1]

SECTION 2. HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

Election of Members. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

Qualifications. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Apportionment. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers,[2] which shall be determined by adding to the

[1] The term of each Congress is two years. A new Congress assembles on the first Monday in December of the odd-numbered years and "expires at noon of the fourth of March next succeeding the beginning of its second regular session, when a new Congress begins."

[2] The apportionment under the census of 1910 is one representative for every 212,407 persons.

whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons.[1] The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative: and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

Vacancies. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority[2] thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

Officers. Impeachment. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker[3] and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION 3. SENATE

Number of Senators: Election. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote. [Repealed in 1913 by Amendment XVII.]

Classification. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive[4] thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies. [Modified by Amendment XVII.]

Qualifications. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

[1] The word "persons" refers to slaves. The word "slave" appears nowhere in the Constitution. This paragraph has been amended (Amendments XIII and XIV) and is no longer in force.

[2] Governor.

[3] The Speaker, who presides, is one of the representatives; the other officers — clerk, sergeant-at-arms, postmaster, chaplain, doorkeeper — are not.

[4] Governor.

President of Senate. The Vice President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

Officers. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

Trials of Impeachment. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

Judgment in Case of Conviction. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

Section 4. Both Houses

Manner of electing Members. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.[1]

Meetings of Congress. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Section 5. The Houses separately

Organization. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

Rules. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

Journal. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

[1] This is to prevent Congress from fixing the places of meeting of the state legislatures.

Adjournment. Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Section 6. Privileges and Disabilities of Members

Pay and Privileges of Members. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

Prohibitions on Members. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

Section 7. Method of passing Laws

Revenue Bills. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

How Bills become Laws. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Resolutions, etc. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by

him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION 8. POWERS GRANTED TO CONGRESS

Powers of Congress. The Congress shall have power:

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post offices and post roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal,[1] and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and

[1] Letters granted by the government to private citizens in time of war, authorizing them, under certain conditions, to capture the ships of the enemy.

the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States,[1] and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; — And

Implied Powers. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.[2]

Section 9. Powers forbidden to the United States

Absolute Prohibitions on Congress. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.[3]

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus[4] shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder[5] or ex post facto law[6] shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken. [Extended by Amendment XVI.]

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

[1] The District of Columbia.

[2] This is the famous elastic clause of the Constitution.

[3] This refers to the foreign slave trade. "Persons" means "slaves." In 1808 Congress prohibited the importation of slaves. This clause is, of course, no longer in force except as it authorizes a tax on immigrants.

[4] An official document requiring an accused person who is in prison awaiting trial to be brought into court to inquire whether he is legally held.

[5] A special legislative act by which a person may be condemned to death or to outlawry or banishment without the opportunity of defending himself which he would have in a court of law.

[6] A law relating to the punishment of acts committed before the law was passed.

Section 10. Powers forbidden to the States

Absolute Prohibitions on the States. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

Conditional Prohibitions on the States. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

Section 1. President and Vice President

Term. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows:

Electors. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

Proceedings of Electors and of Congress. [[1] The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have

[1] This paragraph in brackets has been superseded by the Twelfth Amendment.

such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall, in like manner, choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice President.]

Time of choosing Electors. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.[1]

Qualifications of President. No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years resident within the United States.

Vacancy. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.[2]

Salary. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Oath. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: — "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

[1] The electors are chosen on the Tuesday next after the first Monday in November in the year preceding the expiration of a presidential term. They vote (by Act of Congress of February 3, 1887) on the second Monday in January for President and Vice President. The votes are counted, and declared in Congress on the second Wednesday of the following February.

[2] This has now been provided for by the Presidential Succession Act of 1886.

Section 2. Powers of the President

Military Powers; Reprieves and Pardons. The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

Treaties; Appointments. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

Filling of Vacancies. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Section 3. Duties of the President

Message; Convening of Congress. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information[1] of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Section 4. Impeachment

Removal of officers. The President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

[1] The president gives this information through a message to Congress at the opening of each session. Washington and John Adams read their messages in person to Congress. Jefferson, however, sent a written message to Congress. This method was followed until Woodrow Wilson returned to the earlier custom. President Coolidge revived the practice of written communications.

ARTICLE III. JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. UNITED STATES COURTS

Courts established; Judges. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION 2. JURISDICTION OF UNITED STATES COURTS

Federal Courts in General. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; — to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; — to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; — to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; — to controversies between two or more States; — between a State and citizens of another State;[1] — between citizens of different States; — between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

Supreme Court. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

Trials. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such a place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3. TREASON

Treason defined. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

Punishment. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

[1] This has been modified by the Eleventh Amendment.

ARTICLE IV. RELATIONS OF THE STATES TO EACH OTHER

SECTION 1. OFFICIAL ACTS

Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2. PRIVILEGES OF CITIZENS

The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

Fugitives from Justice. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

Fugitive Slaves. No person [1] held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION 3. NEW STATES AND TERRITORIES

Admission of States. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

Territory and Property of United States. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION 4. PROTECTION OF THE STATES

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

[1] "Person" here includes slaves. This was the basis of the Fugitive Slave Laws of 1793 and 1850. It is now superseded by the Thirteenth Amendment, by which slavery is prohibited.

ARTICLE V. AMENDMENTS

How proposed; how ratified. The Congress, whenever two thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI. GENERAL PROVISIONS

Public Debt. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

Supremacy of Constitution. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

Official Oath; Religious Test. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII. RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION

Ratification. The ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.[1]

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia

NEW HAMPSHIRE

JOHN LANGDON
NICHOLAS GILMAN

MASSACHUSETTS

NATHANIEL GORHAM
RUFUS KING

CONNECTICUT

WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON
ROGER SHERMAN

NEW YORK

ALEXANDER HAMILTON

NEW JERSEY

WILLIAM LIVINGSTON
DAVID BREARLEY
WILLIAM PATERSON
JONATHAN DAYTON

PENNSYLVANIA

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN
THOMAS MIFFLIN
ROBERT MORRIS
GEORGE CLYMER
THOMAS FITZSIMONS
JARED INGERSOLL
JAMES WILSON
GOUVERNEUR MORRIS

DELAWARE

GEORGE READ
GUNNING BEDFORD, JR.
JOHN DICKINSON
RICHARD BASSETT
JACOB BROOM

MARYLAND

JAMES M'HENRY
DANIEL OF ST. THOMAS JENIFER
DANIEL CARROLL

VIRGINIA

JOHN BLAIR
JAMES MADISON, JR.

NORTH CAROLINA

WILLIAM BLOUNT
RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT
HUGH WILLIAMSON

SOUTH CAROLINA

JOHN RUTLEDGE
CHARLES C. PINCKNEY
CHARLES PINCKNEY
PIERCE BUTLER

GEORGIA

WILLIAM FEW
ABRAHAM BALDWIN

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary*

[1] There were sixty-five delegates chosen to the convention: ten did not attend; sixteen declined or failed to sign; thirty-nine signed. Rhode Island sent no delegates.

AMENDMENTS

Religion, Speech, Press, Assembly, Petition. ARTICLE I.[1] Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for redress of grievances.

Militia. ARTICLE II. A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

Soldiers. ARTICLE III. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Unreasonable Searches. ARTICLE IV. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Criminal Prosecutions. ARTICLE V. No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

Suits at Common Law. ARTICLE VII. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reexamined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of common law.

[1] These amendments were proposed by Congress and ratified by the legislatures of the several states, pursuant to the fifth article of the Constitution. The first ten were offered in 1789 and adopted before the close of 1791. They were for the most part the work of Madison. They are frequently called the Bill of Rights, as their purpose is to guard more efficiently the rights of the people and of the states.

Bail, Punishments. ARTICLE VIII. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

Reserved Rights and Powers. ARTICLE IX. The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

Suits against States. ARTICLE XI.[1] The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against any of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

Method of electing President and Vice President. ARTICLE XII.[2] The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice President, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate; — the president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; — the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President, shall be the Vice President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally

[1] Proposed in 1794; ratified in 1798.
[2] Ratified in 1804.

ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

Slavery abolished. ARTICLE XIII.[1] *Section 1.* Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Negroes made Citizens. ARTICLE XIV.[2] *Section 1.* All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Section 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

Section 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two thirds of each house, remove such disability.

Section 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

[1] Ratified in 1865. [2] Ratified in 1868.

Section 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

Negroes made Voters. ARTICLE XV.[1] *Section 1.* The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Section 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Income Tax. ARTICLE XVI.[2] The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

Direct Election of Senators. ARTICLE XVII.[2] The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures.

When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided, that the Legislature of any State may empower the Executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the Legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

National Prohibition. ARTICLE XVIII.[3] *Section 1.* After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

Section 2. The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Section 3. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the Legislatures of the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

Woman Suffrage. ARTICLE XIX.[4] *Section 1.* The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

Section 2. Congress shall have power, by appropriate legislation, to enforce the provisions of this article.

[1] Ratified in 1870.
[2] Ratified in 1913.
[3] Ratified in 1919.
[4] Ratified in 1920.

APPENDIX B

INTERESTING FACTS ABOUT THE UNITED STATES

Names of States	Entered the Union		Area in 1920	Population		Rank in 1920	Number of Representatives in Congress		Electoral Vote		Educational Rank according to Ayres	
	Order	Date	Square Miles	1910	1920		1913 to 1923	1923 to 1933	1912 to 1920	1924 to 1928	1910	1918
Alabama	22	1819	51,998	2,138,093	2,348,174	18	10	10	12	12	44	45
Arizona	48	1912	113,956	204,354	334,162	45	1	1	3	3	17	3
Arkansas	25	1836	53,335	1,574,449	1,752,204	25	7	7	9	9	45	46
California	31	1850	158,297	2,377,549	3,426,861	8	11	14	13	16	2	2
Colorado	38	1876	103,498	799,024	939,629	33	4	4	6	6	12	13
Connecticut	5	1788	4,965	1,114,756	1,380,631	29	5	6	7	8	11	10
Delaware	1	1787	2,370	202,302	223,003	46	1	1	3	3	33	35
Florida	27	1845	58,666	752,619	968,470	32	4	4	6	6	41	37
Georgia	4	1788	59,265	2,609,121	2,895,832	12	12	12	14	14	43	43
Idaho	43	1890	83,888	325,594	431,866	42	2	2	4	4	19	17
Illinois	21	1818	56,665	5,638,591	6,485,280	3	27	27	29	29	10	22
Indiana	19	1816	36,354	2,700,876	2,930,390	11	13	12	15	14	16	16
Iowa	29	1846	56,147	2,224,771	2,404,021	16	11	10	13	12	29	6
Kansas	34	1861	82,158	1,690,949	1,769,257	24	8	7	10	9	23	25
Kentucky	15	1792	40,598	2,289,905	2,416,630	15	11	10	13	12	39	41
Louisiana	18	1812	48,506	1,656,388	1,798,509	22	8	7	10	9	38	42
Maine	23	1820	33,040	742,371	768,014	35	4	3	6	5	30	32
Maryland	7	1788	12,327	1,295,346	1,449,661	28	6	6	8	8	32	34
Massachusetts	6	1788	8,266	3,366,416	3,852,356	6	16	16	18	18	3	8
Michigan	26	1837	57,980	2,810,173	3,668,412	7	13	15	15	17	18	9
Minnesota	32	1858	84,682	2,075,708	2,387,125	17	10	10	12	12	20	18
Mississippi	20	1817	46,865	1,797,114	1,790,618	23	8	7	10	9	46	47

Names of States	Entered the Union		Area in 1920	Population		Rank in 1920	Number of Representatives in Congress		Electoral Vote		Educational Rank according to Ayres	
	Order	Date	Square Miles	1910	1920		1913 to 1923	1923 to 1933	1912 to 1920	1924 to 1928	1910	1918
Missouri	24	1821	69,240	3,293,335	3,404,055	9	16	14	18	16	31	31
Montana	41	1889	146,997	376,053	548,889	39	2	2	4	4	6	1
Nebraska	37	1867	77,520	1,192,214	1,296,372	31	6	5	8	7	21	21
Nevada	36	1864	110,690	81,875	77,407	49	1	1	3	3	4	15
New Hampshire	9	1788	9,341	430,572	443,083	41	2	2	4	4	27	27
New Jersey	3	1787	8,224	2,537,167	3,155,900	10	12	13	14	15	5	4
New Mexico	47	1912	122,634	327,301	360,350	43	1	1	3	3	37	28
New York	11	1788	49,204	9,113,614	10,385,227	1	43	43	45	45	7	12
North Carolina	12	1789	52,426	2,206,287	2,559,123	14	10	11	12	13	47	44
North Dakota	39	1889	70,837	577,056	646,872	36	3	3	5	5	26	14
Ohio	17	1803	41,040	4,767,121	5,759,394	4	22	24	24	26	13	11
Oklahoma	46	1907	70,057	1,657,155	2,028,283	21	8	8	10	10	34	33
Oregon	33	1859	96,699	672,765	783,389	34	3	3	5	5	14	19
Pennsylvania	2	1787	45,126	7,665,111	8,720,017	2	36	36	38	38	15	20
Rhode Island	13	1790	1,248	542,610	604,397	38	3	2	5	4	9	24
South Carolina	8	1788	30,989	1,515,400	1,683,724	26	7	7	9	9	48	48
South Dakota	40	1889	77,615	583,888	636,547	37	3	3	5	5	25	26
Tennessee	16	1796	42,022	2,184,789	2,337,885	19	10	10	12	12	42	40
Texas	28	1845	265,896	3,896,542	4,663,228	5	18	19	20	21	36	36
Utah	45	1896	84,990	373,351	449,396	40	2	2	4	4	8	7
Vermont	14	1791	9,564	355,956	352,428	44	2	1	4	3	28	29
Virginia	10	1788	42,627	2,061,612	2,309,187	20	10	10	12	12	40	39
Washington	42	1889	69,127	1,141,990	1,356,621	30	5	6	7	8	1	5
West Virginia	35	1863	24,170	1,221,119	1,463,701	27	6	6	8	8	35	38
Wisconsin	30	1848	56,066	2,333,860	2,632,067	13	11	11	13	13	22	30
Wyoming	44	1890	97,194	145,965	194,402	47	1	1	3	3	24	23

Guide for selecting an occupation

1.- Are we fitted
2.- Our likes
3.- Learn to know yourself
4.- Investigate the work.
5.- Preparation
6.- Avoid blind alley jobs.

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2- First reading
3- Numbering and printing
4- To committee
5- Bill reported out by committee
6- Set on calendar for second reading
7- Read the bill a second time
8- Set on calendar for third R.
9- Third Reading
10- Engrossment of Bill
11- Signed by presiding officer

County Court

1 Co Court
2 Coroner & Assistant
3 Sheriff & Assistants
4 Judge
5- Deputy Atty

Dont tell me the Vulgar
idea that mind is but a
warehouse, and education
but a process of stuffing
it full of goods. moore

Education is the chief
defence of nations. Burke

Robert Raikes organized
sunday schools in 1778

Eckhart Co. was organized
in 1830

Dr. C. T. Longfore is Co
health off. of Goshen

Dr. Cirlin is town health
off.

Wabash
South

1. Names of town Council
2. Marshal, Treasurer
Fire chief (5) Clerk

How long do they serve

Frank Kellog
of World court

Helen Keller was
blind deaf and dumb
She was born at Tuscum
ala. She was placed
under the care of Miss
Anna Sullivan

She lost her sight & smell
and hear.

House of rep —— 435
Nicolas Longworth
Davis — Ty
Marjorie

Fort Wayne
Logansport
Indianapolis
Richmond
Connersville
Fort Madison

431 representatives
96 Senators